ADOPTING A SUPERVISOR'S PERSPECTIVE TO INCREASE SELF-SUPERVISOR AGREEMENT IN WORK PERFORMANCE RATINGS: THE ROLE OF PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS AND CULTURE

A Dissertation

by

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ABSTRACT

It is theorized that changing a rater's perspective should improve rater congruence. Specifically, when employees assess their own performance from their supervisor's perspective (supervisor-perspective ratings), self-rated performance becomes less biased, resulting in improved correspondence between "self-" and supervisor ratings. Despite the growing popularity of using supervisor-perspective ratings in the literature, unanswered questions remain. First, little research has explicitly examined *how* self-ratings change as a function of different perspectives. Thus, it is unclear how adopting a supervisor's perspective actually alters self-ratings (mean shift of self-ratings). Second, despite the presence of two congruence indices (mean differences and correlations), prior research has focused on either mean differences or correlations, not both. Therefore, it is not clear whether instructing employees to adopt their supervisor's perspective is a viable way to increase both types of correspondence. Third, it is unclear if using a supervisor-perspective ratings alters and further influences ratings of all types of job-related behaviors (task performance, organizational citizenship behavior, and counterproductive work behavior). Last, little is known about whether and how adopting a supervisor's perspective influences rater congruence in an Eastern culture.

The objective of this dissertation was to enhance our understanding of how adopting the supervisor's perspective influences the congruence between self- and supervisor ratings. Specifically, three studies were conducted. The purpose of Study 1

(180 employees from M-Turk) was to examine how adopting a supervisor's perspective changes self-ratings of work performance dimensions in the U.S. The purpose of Study 2 (143 Korean employee-supervisor dyads) was to explore the extent to which the presumed findings from the U.S. occur with a matched sample of Korean employees and their supervisors. The purpose of Study 3 was to meta-analytically investigate 1) the mean shift due to adopting a supervisor's perspective, 2) the magnitude of congruence (*r* and *d*) between self and supervisor ratings, and 3) whether culture and work performance dimension moderate the mean shift and congruence. By synthesizing the findings from all three studies, this dissertation provides a quantitative summary of the magnitude and boundary conditions surrounding the supervisor-perspective effect, advancing research on self-supervisor rating congruence.

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1. **INTRODUCTION**

In the field of industrial/organizational (I/O) psychology, self-other rating agreement is typically defined as the degree of agreement or congruence between an individual's ratings and the ratings of others such as supervisors, peers, or subordinates (Fleenor, Smither, Atwater, Braddy, & Sturm, 2010). In research and practice, there are a number of reasons why understanding rater agreement between employees and supervisors is important. One reason is that high congruence between raters is related to individual and organizational outcomes. Empirical evidence has documented that congruence between self- and supervisor ratings of performance is associated with higher leader effectiveness, psychological adjustment, and lower manager derailment (Atwater & Yammarino, 1992; Kwan, John, Robins, & Kuang, 2008; McCall & Lombardo, 1983; Yammarino, & Atwater, 1993). This is because when self-ratings agree with other-ratings, employees tend to effectively identify and use information about their abilities and performance to change their goals, standards, and behavior, which in turn leads to higher levels of organizational effectiveness (Ashford, 1989; Atwater, Roush, & Fischthal, 1995; Church, 1997).

A second reason to be interested in self-other rating agreement is because of the prevalent use of multisource (or 360-degree) ratings (Halverson, Tonidandel, Barlow, & Dipboye, 2005). Specifically, 360-degree ratings are embedded within a performance management system in which a focal person's performance is evaluated by multiple individuals who have varying relationships with the focal person (Murphy

& Cleveland, 1995). In the context of multisource ratings, employees are likely to receive more thorough and less biased evaluations and feedback about their own behavior from multiple raters. Thus, rating disagreement can help employees to become aware of other people's perspectives, encourage them to gather developmental feedback from others, and alter their behavior to align with their supervisor's and colleagues' expectations and desires (Atwater et al., 1995).

A third reason why self-other rating agreement is important has to do with an interest in increasing the validity of self-ratings. In research, there is the prevalent assumption that supervisor-rated performance is superior to self-rated performance (Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002). Thus, supervisor ratings are treated as "the standard" index to judge whether ratings made by employees (i.e., self-ratings) are "accurate and valid." For this reason, a stronger correlation between self-ratings and supervisor ratings is regarded as an evidence of "improved" validity of self-assessment (e.g., Fox & Dinur, 1988; Mills, Matthews, Henning, & Woo, 2014). Accordingly, in an attempt to improve the validity of self-ratings, some researchers have advocated for altering the instructions given to employees when gathering self-ratings of job performance (e.g., rate how you believe your supervisor would rate you on your job performance; Ashford & Black, 1996; Pearce & Porter, 1986; Schoorman & Mayer, 2008).

Moreover, an examination of the extent to which self-ratings are associated with other ratings is important as both self- and other ratings of organizational behaviors are commonly used in I/O psychology and management research.

Recognizing that different rating sources have their respective benefits and limitations, researchers have tried to identify whether each rating source provides comparable and/or unique information (e.g., Berry, Carpenter, & Barratt, 2012; Carpenter, Berry, & Houston, 2014; LePine, Erez, & Johnson, 2002). This issue is often addressed by examining the correspondence between different rating sources and their respective effects on theoretically-relevant correlates such as personality traits, organizational justice, and job satisfaction (e.g., Berry et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2014; Donaldson & Grant-Vallone, 2002).

In an effort to contribute to the understanding of self-other rating agreement, the main focus of this dissertation is on one factor that has been proposed to influence rater agreement, namely changing a rater's perspective. It should be noted that this study focuses on the extent to which self-ratings are associated with supervisor ratings rather than other-ratings (peers, subordinates, or customers) for several reasons. First, supervisor ratings of job performance are commonly used for making comparisons between employees which facilitate administrative decision-making (Cleveland, Murphy, & Williams, 1989). Also, research has documented that supervisors are the most reliable source of job performance ratings (Conway & Huffcutt, 1997; Viswesvaran, Ones, & Schmidt, 1996). In addition, supervisor ratings are more strongly associated with objective performance criteria than other ratings (e.g., Atkins & Wood, 2002; Becker & Klimoski, 1989; Beehr, Ivanitskaya, Hansen, Erofeev, & Gudanowski, 2001).

Given the meta-analytic finding that the relationship between self- and supervisor ratings of job performance is relatively weak (r_c = .34; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009), a number of studies have attempted to explain why rater discrepancies occur. One plausible explanation for the lack of agreement between self- and supervisor ratings of job performance pertains to different perspectives of raters (Goris, 2014; Hu, Kaplan, Wei, & Vega, 2014a; Hu, Kaplan, Wei, & Vega, 2014b). Specifically, employees could either use their own view of their performance (i.e., direct perspective) or attempt to estimate the supervisor's perspective (i.e., supervisor-perspective). Correspondingly, if employees are explicitly asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective, their ratings should be more closely aligned with supervisor ratings (Schoorman & Mayer, 2008). For example, when raters assess their own performance from their supervisor's perspective (i.e., "how you think your supervisor would rate your job performance"; a supervisor-perspective rating) rather than their own perspective, ratings are likely to be similar to actual supervisor ratings. Accordingly, one can expect to obtain improved correspondence between self- and supervisor ratings by having employees rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective. Based on Schoorman and Mayer's (2008) findings, a number of researchers have used supervisor-perspective ratings as a substitute for actual supervisor ratings in research when they did not have access to supervisor-rated performance (Bernerth, Taylor, Walker, & Whitman, 2012, Bhargava & Pradhan, 2017; Brown & Hanlon, 2016; Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Hennekam, 2016; Hirschfeld, Thomas, Bernerth, 2011; Hoekstra, 2011; Lobene & Meade, 2013;

Miscenko, Guenter, & Day, 2017; Trejo, Richard, van Driel, & McDonald, 2015; Schat & Frone, 2011; Zacher, 2015). In fact, some researchers have assumed that the use of supervisor-perspective ratings in research is effective because it can reduce socially desirable responding tendencies in self-ratings (Miscenko et al., 2017; Zacher, 2015).

Despite the growing use of supervisor-perspective ratings in research, there are several important gaps in the literature. First, little is known about *how* adopting a supervisor's perspective results in self-ratings of job performance in the first place. As mentioned above, many researchers assume that self-ratings from the perspective of a supervisor are superior to traditional self-ratings because it can reduce socially desirable responding tendencies in self-ratings. For instance, Zacher (2015) advocated for using the supervisor-perspective ratings because it can be a viable way "to minimize the likelihood of self-report bias" (p. 79). Hoekstra (2011) also stated "perspective taking has been reported to remedy the self-serving disadvantages of self-reported performance to a large extent" (p. 167). However, little research has explicitly examined whether adopting a supervisor's perspective results in lower self-ratings. In fact, it is possible that asking employees to rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective can either lead to increased self-ratings, decreased self-ratings, or have no effect on the self-ratings. Thus, it is important to understand how adopting a supervisor's perspective changes self-ratings prior to examining the extent to which the use of supervisor-perspective ratings influences correspondence between raters.

Second, it is unclear the extent to which adopting a supervisor's perspective influences two indices of congruence: congruence-*r* (correlation) and congruence-*d*

(mean difference). *Congruence-r* represents the correlation between two sets of ratings. That is, it is often reported in studies examining the extent to which self-ratings are correlated with supervisor-ratings. Thus, congruence-*r* is the main interest when researchers attempt to determine whether the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings is improved due to adopting a supervisor's perspective (e.g., Hu et al., 2014a; Mills et al., 2014; Schoorman & Mayer, 2008). *Congruence-d* refers to the mean difference between the levels of ratings made by two raters. It is often reported in studies when the leniency of self-ratings is the focal interest (e.g., Goris, 2014; Hu et al., 2014b). Thus, congruence-*d* is more frequently examined when researchers are interested in the extent to which employees rate their job performance more favorably than do their supervisors in the context of performance appraisal.

Despite the presence of two congruence indices, prior research has paid attention to *either* mean differences (congruence-*d*) *or* correlations (congruence-*r*) between the ratings, but not both. However, this should be noted that congruence-*d* and -*r* are conceptually and empirically independent (Thorton, 1980; Warr & Bourne, 1999). That is, reducing the mean differences between self- and supervisor ratings may not always increase the correlations between them and vice versa (Goodwin & Leech, 2006). For example, Hu et al. (2014a) revealed that the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings was improved when employees rated themselves using their supervisor's perspective, but the mean of self-ratings were further away from the mean of actual supervisor ratings. This result reflects how the two forms of congruence provide different pieces of information. Hence, a close examination of how both the

means and the correlations are influenced when employees are asked to rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective is warranted.

Third, most of the studies on the ratings from a supervisor's perspective have focused exclusively on one dimension of performance, task performance, despite the fact that work performance is multidimensional (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Johnson, 2001; Sackett, 2002). Therefore, it is unclear whether changes in self-ratings after taking a supervisor's perspective and congruence vary as a function of different job performance dimensions assessed. It appears that adopting a supervisor's perspective when generating ratings is expected to improve the correspondence between self- and supervisor ratings on task-related behaviors. However, it should be noted that taking a supervisor's perspective may not necessarily lead to enhanced agreement with self-ratings of some other work performance dimensions (i.e., discretionary or negative behaviors). In fact, meta-analytic reviews have indicated that discrepancy in self-other rating is moderated by what is being measured (e.g., Berry et al., 2012; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2012). Thus, it is important to determine the extent to which changing perspectives facilitates congruence across multiple job performance dimensions.

Last, it is not clear if congruence between self- and supervisor ratings is moderated by culture. Many researchers have highlighted that raters' cultural values play a critical role in determining self- and other rating agreement (Atwater, Wang, Smither, & Fleenor, 2009; Ng, Koh, Ang, Kennedy, & Chan, 2011). For instance, whereas the self-supervisor rating discrepancy in Western cultures is often attributed to

the tendency for Westerners to inflate self-ratings of job performance (leniency bias in self-ratings), rater disagreement in Eastern cultures does not appear to be due to lenient self-ratings. Contrary to Western cultures, Eastern Asians tend to rate their performance lower than their bosses, peers, and subordinates. This phenomenon has been referred to as a "modesty bias" (e.g., Barron & Sackett, 2008; Farh, Dobbins, & Cheng, 1991) and has been attributed to cultural values that differ between Eastern and Western cultures (e.g., individualism-collectivism; Farh et al., 1991). Consistent with this, meta-analytic evidence has documented the discrepancy between self- and supervisor ratings of job performance is weaker for Asian cultures (Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). Despite the different biases in self-ratings across cultures, little research has explicitly explored whether culture moderates the extent to which adopting a supervisor's perspective influences the two indices of congruence.

Thus, the *purpose* of this dissertation was to investigate how adopting a supervisor's perspective alters self-ratings (mean shift), which in turn influences two indices of congruence between self- and supervisor ratings. Also, this dissertation focused on whether changes in ratings are uniform across all work performance dimensions such as task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB), and whether national culture moderates the mean shift and two congruence indices.

2. SELF-SUPERVISOR RATING AGREEMENT

2.1. Previous Research on Self-Supervisor Rating Agreement

Prior to reviewing the research on self-supervisor rating agreement on work performance, it should be noted that work performance is multidimensional. Researchers have identified at least three distinct behavioral dimensions of work performance: task performance, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB; Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Sackett, 2002). Task performance is defined as the work activities that contribute to an organization's technical core and relate to the transformation of raw materials into job-specific goods and services (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993). OCB is described as the positive work behaviors that are not necessarily mandatory but still contribute to the effectiveness of an organization (Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). Citizenship behaviors can be directed toward individuals (OCB-I) like helping a coworker with their work and showing care and consideration for others. They can also be behaviors directed toward the organization (OCB-O) as a whole, such as showing loyalty and following informal rules (Lee & Allen, 2002; Williams & Anderson, 1991). Recently, some researchers have proposed that citizenship behaviors can also be change-oriented OCB (OCB-CH) and facilitate organizational change (Chiaburu, Oh, Berry, Li, & Gardner, 2011; McAllister, Kamdar, Morrison, & Turban, 2007). CWBs are the negative work behaviors that are dysfunctional and harmful to employees and/or the organization (Bennett & Robinson, 2000). These can be interpersonal behaviors targeting

individuals within the organization (CWB-I) or they can be directed at the organization (CWB-O). CWB-I includes violence, gossip, and theft from coworkers; whereas CWB-O includes intentionally working slowly, damaging company property, and sharing confidential company information (Berry, Ones, & Sackett, 2007).

Extensive research has been conducted to determine the extent to which self-ratings of work performance are associated with supervisor ratings (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). First, Harris and Schaubroeck (1988) investigated self-supervisor rating agreement on overall job performance (i.e., aggregate ratings of performance). They obtained the corrected correlation of .35 (k = 36, N = 3,957) between self- and supervisor ratings. They also reported that self-rated job performance was more than half a standard deviation higher than supervisor-rated job performance (d = .70). Similarly, Conway and Huffcutt (1997) calculated meta-analytic estimates of rater convergence among self, supervisor, peer, and subordinate ratings. Consistent with Harris and Schaubroeck (1988), they found similar correlations between self and supervisor ratings of job performance (r_c = .31; k = 50, N = 10,359) and this relationship was slightly stronger for employees in nonmanagerial jobs (r_c = .35; k = 31, N = 4998) than managerial jobs (r_c = .29; k = 19, N = 5,361).

Consistent with the two previous meta-analyses, Heidemeier and Moser (2009) found a corrected correlation of .34 (k = 115, N = 37,752) between self- and supervisor ratings of overall job performance (i.e., aggregate scores) and a corrected d of .49 (k = 89, N = 35,417), with self-ratings higher than supervisor ratings. Furthermore, they examined the extent to which self-supervisor rater agreement varies as a function of the

behaviors (or dimension of job/work performance) assessed. They found the corrected correlations were slightly stronger for contextual performance (r_c = .34, k = 52, N = not reported) than task performance (r_c = .31, k = 67, N = not reported). Concerning mean differences, the average corrected *ds* between self- and supervisor rating of task and contextual performance were .41 (k = 59, N = not reported) and .47 (k = 51, N = not reported), respectively, with self-ratings higher than supervisor ratings for both dimensions. It is important to highlight that the two forms of congruence are independent of one another. That is, although the correlation between self-and supervisor ratings was slightly higher for contextual performance than for task performance, the mean difference between self- and supervisor ratings was slightly smaller for task performance than for contextual performance.

Carpenter et al. (2014) meta-analytically investigated the extent to which self-rated OCBs are associated with other-rated OCBs (e.g., supervisor and coworker). They found a corrected *d* of .39 between self- and supervisor ratings of overall OCB (k = 33, N = 8,605), suggesting that self-raters tend to report engaging in more OCBs (about one third of a standard deviation more) than supervisors tend to report them engaging in. When the two types of OCBs were separated, the mean differences between self- and supervisor ratings were considerably different. Specifically, a corrected *d* for OCB-I between self- and supervisor ratings was .54 (k = 14, N = 2,817), whereas a corrected *d* for OCB-O was .18 (k = 12, N = 2,365). They found a corrected *r* of .23 between self- and supervisor ratings of overall OCB (k = 19, N = 5,849) with the 95 percent confidence interval [.20, .31], indicating that there are some moderators.

They also reported that a corrected correlation between self- and supervisor OCB-O ratings (ρ_α = .45, k = 12, N = 2,365) was higher than a corrected correlation between self- and supervisor OCB-I ratings (ρ_α = .39, k = 14, N = 2,817). In conclusion, employees are more likely to agree with supervisors on OCB-O ratings than OCB-I ratings, which is in line with Allen, Barnard, Rush, and Rusell's (2000) argument that OCB-O represents several rule-adherent behaviors that are likely to be noticed and recognized by supervisors.

In addition to the positive aspects of work performance, researchers have also examined self- supervisor rating agreement on negative behavior. Specifically, Berry et al. (2012) meta-analytically investigated the congruence between self- and other-ratings (e.g., supervisor and coworkers) of CWBs. The corrected correlation between self- and supervisor ratings of overall CWB was .37 (k = 11, N = 2,044). Regarding mean differences, they found that self-raters reported more overall CWBs than supervisors (d = .44; k = 9, N = 1,458). Concerning the mean differences and correlations for two types of CWBs, Berry et al. (2012) used the combined supervisor and coworker ratings of CWB-I and CWB-O due to the lack of primary studies for each of these. Thus, separate estimates of mean differences and correlations between self- and supervisor ratings on CWB-I and CWB-O were not presented.

2.2. Explanations of Why Self-Supervisor Ratings Do Not Agree

Although there are several different factors that contribute to self-other rating agreement, the underlying premise is that self-ratings are biased in some manner (Fleenor et al., 2010). As noted above, considerable evidence has documented that self-

ratings are usually high relative to other ratings (Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Heidemeier, & Moser, 2009; Holzbach, 1978). Thus, it is assumed that individuals have a tendency to inflate their own ratings. The argument that self-ratings are leniently biased is corroborated by the literature on self-perception. For instance, self-enhancement– the tendency for people to be motivated to present themselves in a favorable light – is one of the mostly accepted assumptions about self-perception (James, 1950; Maslow, 1943; Rogers, 1951; Taylor & Brown, 1988). In a similar vein, attribution theory suggests an egocentric bias in self-ratings and its subsequent effect on rater agreement (DeVader, Bateson, & Lord, 1986). According to this theory, actors and observers attribute the same behavior to different factors. For instance, actors (i.e., self-raters) ascribe high performance to their own behavior and poor performance to external factors. Conversely, observers (e.g., supervisors) attribute high performance to external factors and poor performance to the actors' dispositions. In sum, the tendency to view one's self positively can explain inflated self-assessment of positive behaviors, resulting in lack of rater agreement.

Another explanation for the lack of rater agreement has to do with opportunities to observe specific behaviors from a rater's point-of-view. In the context of performance appraisal, the opportunity to observe an employee's job performance is necessary in order to generate reliable and accurate ratings. In this regard, many researchers have emphasized the importance of ensuring that raters have sufficient opportunities to observe employee's work performance. For example, Nagle (1953) stated noted that the lack of opportunity to observe likely contributes to unreliable

ratings and consistent with this, Rothstein (1990) found that sufficient opportunity for supervisors to observe led to an increase in the interrater reliability of ratings. Likewise, Dunnette (1966) pointed out that rating errors are likely to occur "if the supervisor has had little or only limited opportunity to observe either the employee or his job behavior" (p. 89).

In a similar vein, when supervisors have not had an adequate opportunity to observe employees, rater disagreement is more likely to occur. Specifically, it is unlikely for a supervisor to have the opportunity to observe all of an employee's OCBs (Chan, 2009), because some OCBs are directed towards one's coworkers (e.g., Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Lawler, 1967; Organ, Podsakoff, & MacKenzie, 2006). In addition, some exemplar OCB actions (e.g., defends the organization when outsiders criticize it; takes steps to prevent problems with other workers) could occur when the supervisor is not around. In this regard, Carpenter et al. (2014) speculated that the extent to which other-raters observe an employee's OCB engagement can be a feasible explanation for the self–other rating difference on OCB. Likewise, CWB rater disagreement may be due to lack of opportunities that other-raters have to observe specific behaviors. For instance, because employees are less likely to exhibit CWB toward supervisors, it should not be assumed that supervisors would have opportunities to observe employees engaging in CWB. In this regard, several studies have documented that coworkers instead of supervisors are in a better position to judge employees' discretionary and non-task-related behaviors in the workplace (Conway & Huffcutt, 1997; Latham & Wexley, 1982; Lawler, 1967).

It is important to highlight that there are two very different interpretations of disagreement between self and other ratings. On the one hand, some researchers consider rating disagreement between multiple sources as meaningful variance, because each rating source has a unique, yet potentially valid perspective on the focal person's performance (e.g., Borman, 1997; Hoffman, Lance, Bynum, Gentry, 2010; Hoffman & Woehr, 2009). On the other hand, other researchers argue that different scores from different raters assessing the same performance reflect measurement error (e.g., LeBreton, Burgess, Kaiser, Atchley, & James, 2003; Viswesvaran, Schmidt, & Ones, 2002). In the current study, self-supervisor rating disagreement is conceptualized as both error and meaningful variance, as some variance could be explained by different rater perspectives, opportunities to observe the focal behavior, bias, as well as random error.

3. TAKING SOMEONE ELSE'S PERSPECTIVE

3.1 A Brief History of Adopting Someone Else's Perspective

For over a century, researchers from many disciplines have wondered whether individuals know how other people perceive them (i.e., taking a meta-perspective). In sociology, the symbolic interactionist position proffers the idea of a "looking glass self" that people look into the eyes and minds of others and judge how they are seen by others (Cooley, 1902; Mead, 1934). It is posited that individual's self-perceptions reflect their perceptions of how others view them, given that the self is inseparable from society and needs some references to others (Shrauger & Schoeneman, 1979). Thus, sociologists have been interested in determining whether self-perceptions are associated with perceptions of others' impressions, which have been labeled "reflected appraisal," and others' actual impressions (Kinch, 1963).

Adopting the perspective of others is also an important concept within the field of human development. In pioneering work by Piaget (1932), perspective-taking was found to be an essential aspect of child development. Also, in Kohlberg's (1969) six-stage of moral development, people progress gradually from a primitive, egocentric morality to a more ethically principled orientation, suggesting that individuals can take on more than one perspective. In clinical psychology, the question of whether people know how others perceive them has been regarded as important due to the use of perspective-taking as a starting point for an effective counseling session. For instance, counseling and therapy is successful when both the client and the counselor have a

similar perspective on the client's feelings or thoughts (Duan & Hill, 1996). Likewise, the topic regarding whether individuals know how others perceive them ("meta-perception") and whether such perception is accurate or not ("meta-accuracy") is a fundamental issue in social and personality psychology (Kenny, 1994). It is well-documented that individual's beliefs about how others see them are closely related to important psychological concepts such as self-perception, behavioral tendency, and relationships with others (Albright & Malloy, 1999; Kenny & DePaulo, 1993; Kenny & West, 2008). For instance, do socially anxious individuals, who are highly concerned about making good impressions but are not very good at doing this, believe that others take a negative view of people as well? Also, do individuals who have a high level of need for approval tend to be motivated to be favorably perceived by others and see themselves as highly qualified?

The multidisciplinary interest in the phenomenon of perspective-taking is reflected in a variety of terms that connote the notion of the extent to which people know how others perceive them (see Table 1). Some examples include "reflected appraisal" (Shrauger & Schoeneman, 1979), "meta-insight" (Carlson, Vazire, & Furr, 2011), "meta-accuracy" (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993), "perspective taking" (Parker & Axtell, 2001), "metaperspective" (Laing, Phillipson, & Lee, 1966), "metaperception" (Hu et al., 2014a, 2014b), and "taking a common perspective" (Schoorman & Mayer, 2008) (see Table 1). In the context of the workplace, there are a number of different employment-related perspectives that one can take on (e.g., supervisor, subordinate,

Table 1. Meta-perspective terms and definitions

References	Term	Definition
Laing, Phillipson, & Lee (1966)	Metaperspective	My view of the other's view of me
Shrauger & Schoeneman (1979)	Reflected appraisal	A person's perception of how others see and evaluate him or her
Kenny & DePaulo (1993)	Meta-accuracy	The extent to which people know how others see them
Parker & Axtell (2001)	Perspective taking	Adopting another person's viewpoint
Schoorman & Mayer (2008)	Taking a common perspective	Make a judgment from a rater's perspective
Carlson, Vazire, & Furr (2011)	Meta-insight	Whether people make the distinction between how they see their own personality and how others see their personality
Hu et al. (2014a, 2014b)	Metaperception	One's views about how his or her supervisors would rate his or her job performance
The present study	Supervisor-perspective	Taking on a supervisor's point-of-view or perspective when evaluating one's own performance on the job

coworker, and customer). The focus of the present study is on the perspective of a supervisor. Thus, in this dissertation, the term *supervisor-perspective* (SP) refers to the idea of taking on a supervisor's point-of-view or perspective. Thus, the phrase *supervisor-perspective rating*, hereafter refers to the rating employees report for their

own work performance when adopting their supervisor's perspective. The parallel term, *direct-perspective* (DP) refers to the idea of employees adopting their own perspective. Also, the phrase *direct-perspective rating* refers to the rating employees report for their work performance from their own perspective which is equivalent to a traditional self-rating.

3.2 Theoretical Frameworks of Adopting the Perspective of Others

The theoretical basis for adopting someone's perspective can be found in interpersonal perception theory (Laing et al., 1966). Interpersonal perception theory posits that the person's experience is composed not only of a direct perception of the self and a direct perception of the other, but also of the individual's perception of the other's view of him/her (i.e., meta-perception). From this notion, there are at least two levels of perspectives of the self: (1) direct perspective (one's own view) and (2) meta-perspective (what one thinks the other person thinks). Based on the interpersonal perception theory, much attention has been given to the notion of taking a meta-perspective in order to understand how people know others see them and to identify the extent to which the judgment based on perspective taking is similar to the actual others' judgment (e.g., Albright, Forest, & Reiseter, 2001; Kenny & DePaulo, 1993). Previous research has documented that individuals rely on several pieces of information in order to adopt the perspective of others (Albright & Malloy, 1999; Carlson et al., 2011). Thus, the following discussion describes how taking the perspective of others is formed based on three views: dispositional self-views, self-observation, and others' feedback.

First, taking a meta-perspective relies on dispositional self-views. The dispositional self-view model posits that people can infer how others may view them even without paying attention to the way other people react to them because people often tend to strongly rely on their own view (e.g., their own personality traits; Kenny & DePaulo, 1993). This is similar to self-perception process in which people interpret their overt behavior in order to make inferences about their own internal states, such as their opinions and preferences. Relying on dispositional self-views for taking a meta-perspective is also in line with self-judgment concept (Felson, 1992) that people base their self-perception on their interpersonal behavior and then assume that others will make the same judgment about their behavior and judge them the way they judge themselves. The idea that dispositional self-views are a primary source of a meta-perspective has been empirically supported (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993). Specifically, by reviewing eight primary studies about meta-accuracy, Kenny and DePaulo (1993) concluded that individuals tend to identify how others generally view them based on their perceptions of themselves. However, Kenny and DePaulo acknowledged that these findings were somewhat limited as the majority of research studies in this area relied on undergraduate student samples, unnatural experimental settings, and dispositional traits.

Second, taking the perspective of others involves self-observation. Kenny and DePaulo (1993) initially proposed the direct observation model whereby people observe their own behavior in an effort to determine what impressions other people would have of them on the basis of their own behavior. Albright and Malloy (1999)

further argued that the opportunity to observe oneself from an observer's visual perspective influences one's self-perception, which improves the accuracy of perspective-taking. In particular, when individuals are given the opportunity to observe themselves from an observer's perspective (e.g., watching a videotape of his or her interaction with others), individuals can obtain more objective but less inferential information about their own behavior. In line with this argument, research has documented that self-observation provides objective information about one's behavior, which increases the ability to determine how one is judged by others (Albright & Malloy, 1999).

Lastly, taking a meta-perspective entails collecting information about others' feedback and reactions. Kenny and DePaulo (1993) offered the feedback model whereby individuals tend to pay attention to information about others' reactions to their behaviors and then use the information for taking a meta-perspective. The feedback model in particular takes context into account when it comes to perspective-taking (Wyer, Henninger, & Wolfson, 1975). In this regard, Carlson et al. (2011) stated that adopting another person's perspective may be easier in certain situations where feedback, information, or other contextual cues are available or salient. This argument is in line with empirical evidence that people can correctly use appropriate information to form their meta-perceptions, because they clearly adjust perspective-taking from one context to another (Carlson & Furr, 2009; Oltmanns, Gleason, Klonsky, & Turkheimer, 2005). The feedback model is also consistent with symbolic interactionist approaches suggesting that the self develops and changes as people see themselves through the

eyes of others (Cooley, 1902; Felson, 1992; Mead, 1934). In sum, the feedback model explains how taking a meta-perspective occurs in naturalistic social contexts (i.e., with family or friends and in the workplace) whereby individuals have access to information about how others judge them.

3.3 Adopting a Supervisor's Perspective When Rating Work Performance

As noted earlier, many researchers have been interested in the notion of whether one can accurately estimate how others see him or her. Accordingly, there are at least two terms that have been extensively used in the social psychology literature (Carlson et al., 2011): meta-perception and meta-accuracy. The term meta-perception represents people's beliefs about how *others* see them, and the term meta-accuracy represents whether those beliefs are accurate or not. However, in human resource management research and fields, the idea of how an employee adopts the perspective of his or her *supervisor* has been a main interest instead of adopting the perspective of others. This has to do with a substantial number of findings that an employee and a supervisor do not agree considerably on the employee's job performance. Thus, the following review will focus specifically on an employee adopting the perspective of his or her supervisor (supervisor-perspective) in the context of performance appraisal.

Smircich and Chesser (1981) were the first researchers to introduce the idea of having raters alter their perspective in the context of performance appraisal. Based on interpersonal perception theory, Smircich and Chesser attempted to explain rating discrepancies between employees and supervisors. They noted that supervisors rely on their view of their employees' performance (i.e., a supervisor's direct perspective),

whereas employees rely on their view of their performance (i.e., an employee's direct perspective). Alternatively, employees could attempt to estimate their supervisor's direct perspective (i.e., the supervisor-perspective). They proposed that employees are more likely to accurately estimate their supervisor's ratings when employees are explicitly asked to assess themselves from their supervisor's perspective rather than from their own perspective. To explore this proposition, 83 subordinates working in two organizations (distributing and manufacturing) were instructed to take their supervisor's perspective. Specifically, the subordinates were asked to "rate their performance, not the way they perceived it, but, instead, the way they believed their superior would rate them" (Smircich & Chesser, 1981, p. 200). Contrary to expectation, the correlation between the supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings was very weak ($r = .04$, $p > .05$). However, one limitation to this study was that the authors did not obtain a traditional self-rating, thus it is unclear if taking the supervisor's perspective altered the ratings in any way at all.

Close to 30 years later, Schoorman and Mayer (2008) examined the contention that subtle differences in perspective influence the subsequent correlation between self- and supervisor-ratings. Consistent with Smircich and Chesser's (1981) proposition, they claimed that supervisor-perspective ratings should have a stronger level of agreement with actual supervisor ratings than traditional self-ratings. In particular, they examined whether self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective increases the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings. Specifically, in Study 1, 228 employees in a financial organization were asked to rate their job performance in two ways: (1) assess

their own job performance (a traditional self-ratings), and (2) report the rating they were given at the time of last performance appraisal (a supervisor-perspective rating). Actual supervisor ratings were also collected from organizational records. Results indicated that the correlation between supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings was much stronger (r = .88) than the correlation between traditional self-ratings and actual supervisor ratings (r = .38).

Because of the way employees were primed to provide supervisor-perspective ratings in Study 1 ("Report the rating you received at your last formal evaluation"), Schoorman and Mayer (2008) speculated that the high correlation (r = .88) may be due to ratees' memory of their most recent supervisor rating on their last performance appraisal. In an attempt to remove the confounding memory effect, the authors conducted a second study using archival data from Ashford and Tsui's (1991) feedback seeking study. Specifically, 345 employees of a public service agency were asked to rate themselves on 10 managerial roles from their supervisor's perspective (e.g., report the job performance ratings they would receive from their supervisor), as well as from their own perspective. Also, supervisors were asked to rate their employees using the same rating scale. Results showed that the rater agreement was stronger across all 10 managerial roles rated when employees adopted their supervisor's perspective compared to when employees used their own perspective. Based on the findings of the stronger correlation between self- and supervisor ratings, the authors claimed taking a supervisor-perspective can produce more accurate self-ratings than traditional self-ratings.

Hu et al. (2014a) investigated whether the supervisor-perspective effect is influenced by job performance dimensions (task vs. contextual performance) and other factors (impression management and tenure). Using 240 employees from a high-tech firm in China, they found that taking a supervisor's perspective increased rater agreement (i.e., correlation) on only task performance, but not on contextual performance, suggesting that the use of supervisor-perspective ratings provides a better estimate of supervisor-rated task performance than supervisor-rated contextual performance. They also found that the relationship between supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings was moderated by employees' impression management such that rater agreement was stronger when employees were high in impression management rather than low in impression management. However, the presumed moderating effect of tenure on the rater agreement was not significant.

In a similar vein, Hu et al. (2014b) investigated if the use of supervisor-perspective ratings influences another form of congruence between the ratings, namely, mean differences between self- and supervisor ratings. Specifically, they focused on whether the mean-level agreement between supervisor-perspective ratings and supervisor ratings (i.e., interrater agreement) varies as a function of different dimensions of work performance. One hundred sixty-nine employees from a high-tech Chinese company were asked to complete measures of task, contextual, and innovative performance from their supervisor's perspective (i.e., "Describe your view of your direct supervisor's assessment of your job performance."). Supervisors were also asked to rate their subordinates on the same three performance measures. Results indicated

that the mean difference between the employees' self-ratings using a supervisor's perspective and the actual supervisor ratings was smaller for innovative performance than for task and contextual performance, suggesting that employees seemed to be better at estimating how their supervisor would rate them on innovative performance than on task and contextual performance. Thus, their findings demonstrated that the influence of perspective-taking on mean differences between raters varies depending on what is being measured.

Goris (2014) also examined the extent to which self-ratings are inflated relative to their supervisor-ratings. Specifically, a sample of 300 employees from a manufacturing company in Mexico rated their own job performance in two different ways: (a) assess their own performance (i.e., a traditional self-rating; a direct perspective) and (b) estimate their supervisor-ratings ("How you think your supervisor would rate the quality/quantity of your performance; a supervisor-perspective). Performance ratings were also provided by the employees' supervisors. Results indicated that supervisor-perspective ratings were slightly higher than actual supervisor ratings. That is, employees believed that their performance would be rated even more favorably by their supervisor. However, the difference between direct and supervisor-perspective ratings was not significant, which is contrary to the notion that subtle differences in perspective influence self-ratings. A summary of the supervisor-perspective ratings in the context of performance appraisals is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. The supervisor-perspective ratings in the context of performance appraisals

	Sample	Performance dimensions	Directions for meta-perspective self-ratings	Major findings
Smircich & Chesser (1981)	83 employees working in two organizations (distributor and manufacturer) in the U.S.	Composite of six dimensions (quality, quantity, dependability, get along with others, initiative, and overall performance)	Rate your performance in the way you believe your supervisor would rate you.	Subordinates' self-ratings were not highly related to their supervisor-ratings even when subordinates were asked to adopt supervisor's perspective (r = .04). Of a total of 83, 44 subordinates perceived that their ratings from their supervisors would be higher than their own self-ratings.
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 1	228 employees of a large financial organization in the U.S.	Overall performance	Report the rating you were given at the time of your last performance appraisal.	The supervisor-employee rater agreement was much higher when employees were asked to report the ratings they were given (r = .88) than when employees self-rated their performance (r = .38).
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345 executives of a public service agency (data from Ashford and Tsui's [1991] study)	A list of Mintzberg's (1973) 10 managerial roles (interpersonal, informational, and decisional scale)	Please self-report your supervisor's evaluation on each role.	Taking a meta-perspective resulted in a higher correlation between self-reported evaluations and supervisor evaluations on all performance dimensions.

Table 2. Continued

	Sample	Performance dimensions	Directions for meta-perspective self-ratings	Major findings
Hu et al. (2014a)	240 subordinates from a high-tech company in China	Task and contextual performance	Rate how you thought your supervisor would rate you.	Taking a meta-perspective increased correlations on task performance, but not on contextual performance.
Hu et al. (2014b)	169 employees from high-tech company in China	Task, contextual, and innovative performance	Please rate the degree to which you correctly reflect your actual view of your supervisor's evaluation of your work performance.	When employees rated their performance using their supervisor's perspective, the mean level agreement was higher for innovative performance than for task and contextual performance.
Goris (2014)	300 employees from a manufacturing company in Mexico	Quality and quantity of performance	How do you think your supervisor would rate the quality and quantity of your performance?	Supervisor-perspective ratings of quality and quantity of performance were shown to be higher (but not significantly higher) than the actual ratings provided by supervisors.

4. PRESENT STUDY

The present study extends previous research on the notion of adopting a supervisor's perspective in the context of performance appraisal. As mentioned earlier, Smircich and Chesser (1981) claimed that one reason for discrepancies between self- and supervisor ratings is that self-raters rely on their own view of performance (direct-perspective: DP) when evaluating their behavior. Accordingly, they argued that changing the perspective of the raters (i.e., asking them to take the perspective of their supervisor) might help obtain greater accuracy in self-ratings, which would in turn increase the correspondence of self-ratings with supervisor ratings. Based on this argument, several researchers have examined the extent to which the agreement between self-ratings and supervisor-ratings is improved when employees are asked to rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective (Hu et al., 2014a; Hu et al., 2014b; Schoorman & Mayer, 2008). More importantly, a number of studies have used the "referent-shift" instruction (i.e., supervisor-perspective: SP) as a substitute for actual supervisor ratings (Bhargava & Pradhan, 2017; Brown & Hanlon, 2016; Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Hennekam, 2016; Hirschfeld et al., 2011; Hoekstra, 2011; Lobene & Meade, 2013; Miscenko et al., 2017; Trejo et al., 2015; Schat & Frone, 2011; Zacher, 2015). Additionally, some researchers assume that adopting a supervisor's perspective will reduce the likelihood of self-report bias (Hoekstra, 2011; Miscenko et al., 2017).

However, there are several reasons to further examine SP ratings. First, it is important to identify and understand *how* taking on a supervisor's perspective alters

self-ratings of job performance (i.e., mean shift) in the first place, prior to examining the extent to which the use of SP ratings influences rater congruence. Basically, adopting a supervisor's perspective can either result in increased self-ratings, decreased self-ratings, or have no effect on the self-ratings. Furthermore, these changes (or lack thereof) in self-ratings might be consistent or be different across all work performance dimensions such that adopting a supervisor's perspective may help to improve rater agreement on one or more dimensions. Interestingly, most researchers have focused primarily on the resulting correspondence (i.e., correlation) between ratings without making note of how the ratings change (e.g., Hu et al., 2014a; Schoorman & Mayer, 2008; Smircich & Chesser, 1981). However, it should be noted that the correspondence between raters is dependent on whether and how employees alter their ratings. Thus, an examination of how raters adjust their ratings when asked to adopt a supervisor's perspective is needed.

Second, it is important to investigate how adopting a supervisor's perspective influences rater agreement with two indices of congruence between self- and supervisor ratings: congruence-*r* (correlations) and congruence-*d* (mean difference). Congruence-*r* is the primary way that researchers have determined whether the correspondence between self- and supervisor ratings is improved when the employee adopts a supervisor's perspective (e.g., Hu et al., 2014a; Mills et al., 2014; Schoorman & Mayer, 2008). Congruence-*d* is the primary way that researchers are interested in the extent to which employees rate their job performance more favorably than do their supervisor ratings in the context of performance appraisal.

Given that congruence-*d* and -*r* are conceptually and empirically independent (Thorton, 1980; Warr & Bourne, 1999), two congruence indices should not be considered equally. This is because reducing the mean differences may not necessarily increase the correlations between self- and supervisor ratings and vice versa (Goodwin & Leech, 2006). For example, Hu et al. (2014a) revealed that the mean of self-ratings moved further away from the mean of actual supervisor ratings when employees rated themselves using their supervisor's perspective, however the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings improved. Similarly, Heidemeier and Moser (2009) meta-analytically demonstrated that the two forms of congruence were slightly at odds with one another by examining that what is being measured (i.e., task and contextual performance) moderated self-other rating agreement. Specifically, there was a slightly stronger correlation between self- and supervisor ratings for contextual performance than for task performance, but there was also a slightly larger mean difference between self and supervisor ratings of contextual performance than task performance. These results reflect that the two forms of congruence represent different pieces of information. Hence, in an attempt to better understand what happens to the congruence between self- and supervisor ratings when an employee takes on his or her supervisor's perspective, a close examination of how both measures of congruence are influenced is warranted.

Third, the congruence between self- and supervisor ratings may depend on the performance dimensions rated. Most researchers have advocated for using the supervisor-perspective ratings as a means of reducing rater discrepancies and

improving the validity of self-ratings. This comes from the assumption that supervisor ratings are less biased than self-ratings. However, some behaviors may not be better assessed by the supervisor due to the nature of the behaviors and opportunities to observe them. In addition, given the multidimensionality of work performance (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Murphy, 1989; Sackett, 2002), recent meta-analytic reviews have indicated that self-other rating agreement can vary depending on work performance criteria (e.g., Berry et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2014; Heidemeier & Moser, 2009; Ng & Feldman, 2012). Thus, an examination of whether the congruence between self- and supervisor ratings varies as a function of work performance dimensions, including both positive and negative behaviors, is warranted.

Finally, it is important to determine if culture moderates the extent to which self-ratings change as a function of different perspectives as indicated by the two indices of congruence. Many researchers have noted the potential influence of cultural values on performance ratings (Atwater et al., 2009; Davis, 1998; Cho & Payne, 2016; Day & Greguras, 2009; Fletcher & Perry, 2001). In particular, there is evidence that the way employees evaluate their own performance varies across cultures. For instance, whereas Western employees' self-ratings are inflated relative to supervisor and peer ratings (i.e., leniency bias), Asian raters tend to rate their own performance lower than other raters (i.e., modesty bias; Barron & Sackett, 2008; Farh, et al., 1991). This difference in self-ratings has been attributed to cultural values that vary between Eastern and Western cultures (e.g., individualism-collectivism; Farh et al., 1991). Specifically, unlike individualistic cultures that emphasize individual uniqueness,

collectivistic cultures deemphasize individual achievement and sometimes suppress individual interests for the sake of interpersonal harmony and group cohesion (Hofsted, 2001) such that self-ratings likely entail modesty to some extent. Despite the different self-rating tendencies, however, little is known about how self-ratings change as a function of different perspectives and how two indices of congruence are influenced when adopting a supervisor's perspective in Eastern cultures.

4.1 Mean Shift in Self-ratings

It is posited that changes in self-ratings when taking on a supervisor's perspective will vary as a function of the work performance dimension rated. For positive work behaviors, adopting the perspective of a supervisor will reduce the tendency for a rater to inflate his or her rating of positive behavior. Upon activating another person's perspective, raters are encouraged to overcome their own egocentric perspective (e.g., self-enhancement) which may lead to diminished inflation bias. Also, employees adopting their supervisor's perspective may be less biased, because they will likely rely on information about their behaviors observed by and communicated to their supervisor (Langer & Wurf, 1999). Consequently, it is expected that self-ratings of positive work behaviors will be lower than their own perspective when employees are asked to adopt a supervisor's perspective.

Hypothesis 1: Supervisor-perspective ratings for (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH will be lower than direct-perspective self-ratings.

On the other hand, adopting a supervisor's perspective might not alter self-ratings of negative work behaviors in the same way as it changes self-ratings of

positive work behaviors. Unlike positive work behaviors, CWBs are more subtle and discrete and therefore less likely to be noticed by supervisors. Supervisors are believed to have less opportunities to observe employees engaging in CWBs (Berry et al., 2012). Thus, when employees are asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective, they think that their supervisors are not likely to be aware of and to have witnessed all CWBs, leading employees to provide lower self-ratings of CWBs. Thus, it is expected that employees will underreport their CWBs when they are asked to rate themselves using their supervisor's perspective than when using their own perspective.

Hypothesis 2: Supervisor-perspective ratings for (a) CWB-I, and (b) CWB-O will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.

4.2. Magnitude of Mean Shift in Self-ratings

It is posited that mean differences between supervisor and direct perspectives will be greater for some job performance dimensions. Specifically, concerning positive work behaviors, changes in mean differences will be larger for task performance ratings than OCBs. This is because supervisors are more likely to provide feedback on in-role behaviors prescribed in the job description than voluntary behaviors. Accordingly, employees are likely to have a better sense of how their supervisors will rate them on task performance than OCBs, which will facilitate a greater alignment between supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings. Therefore, taking the supervisor-perspective is likely to result in a larger mean difference between SP ratings and DP ratings for task performance than for OCBs.

Hypothesis 3: The mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of task performance will be larger than the mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of (a) OCB-I, (b) OCB-O, and (c) OCB-CH.

Concerning negative work behaviors, it is expected that changes in mean differences will be larger for CWB-O ratings than CWB-I ratings, due to the observability of each kind of behavior. Specifically, CWB-O might not be observable by a supervisor than CWB-I, because employees are less likely to engage in CWB-O in front of their supervisors (e.g., taking property without permission and intentionally delaying schedules). In contrast, supervisors may be more likely to observe employees engaging in some CWB-I toward other coworkers (e.g., acting rudely toward others). Accordingly, it is expected that taking a supervisor's perspective will likely result in lower self-ratings of CWB-O than CWB-I, which will lead to larger mean changes in CWB-O than in CWB-I.

Hypothesis 4: The mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of CWB-O will be larger than the mean difference between direct- and supervisor perspective ratings of CWB-I.

4.3. Mean Differences Between Supervisor-perspective Ratings and Supervisor Ratings

In regard to positive work behavior, adopting a supervisor's perspective may be a better way of reducing the mean difference between self- and supervisor ratings than using one's own perspective. As mentioned earlier, taking a supervisor's perspective is expected to reduce the leniency frequently exhibited in self-ratings. This is because

taking another's perspective involves taking into consideration the information available to other raters (Albright & Malloy, 1999). Accordingly, as a result of a reduced egocentric view on oneself, SP ratings will be lower than DP ratings, thus increasing the agreement with supervisor ratings. Consequently, it is expected that the mean difference between self- and supervisor-ratings will be smaller when employees are asked to rate themselves using their supervisor's perspective than when using their own perspective.

Hypothesis 5: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH will be smaller when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.

On the other hand, adopting a supervisor's perspective may not be a better way to reduce the mean differences between self- and supervisor ratings. As mentioned above, because CWBs are not publicly available, employees may think that their CWBs are less observable and noticeable by their supervisor. Correspondingly, employees will alter their ratings to reflect less CWBs when taking on their supervisor's perspective. Thus, adopting a supervisor's perspective may not reduce mean differences between self- and supervisor ratings of CWBs.

Hypothesis 6: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of (a) CWB-I and (b) CWB-O will be smaller when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective.

4.4 Correlations Between Supervisor-perspective Ratings and Supervisor Ratings

Concerning correlations with supervisor-ratings, adopting a supervisor's perspective will improve self-supervisor rating agreement. As noted above, intentionally adopting another person's point-of-view enhances one's ability to estimate how he or she would make judgments and evaluations (Epley & Caruso, 2009). Similarly, Albright and Malloy (1999) argued that raters who are asked to adopt the perspective of others should rely on additional information (e.g., feedback from supervisors) instead of relying on their own perspective (Jussim, Soffin, Brown, Ley, & Kohlhepp, 1992), which should cause supervisor-perspective ratings to more closely approximate supervisor ratings. Consequently, SP ratings of positive behavior should correlate more strongly with actual supervisor ratings than DP ratings.

Hypothesis 7: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH will be larger when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.

It is posited that adopting a supervisor's perspective may not improve the correlation between self-ratings and supervisor ratings of CWBs. Previous research has demonstrated that self-other disagreement on CWBs is in part due to other raters having inadequate opportunities to observe certain CWBs (i.e., less observable and private CWBs) (Batarse & Berry, 2017). That is, it is possible that self-ratings of CWBs may be more valid than supervisor-ratings of CWBs. Relatedly, due to the deficient information that supervisors have about employee CWB enactment, SP

ratings of CWB may actually be adjusted in a fashion such that they correlate even less with supervisor ratings than DP ratings.

Hypothesis 8: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of (a) CWB-I and (b) CWB-O will be larger when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective.

The hypotheses were investigated in three sequential studies. The objective of Study 1 was to examine how adopting a supervisor's perspective alters self-ratings of work performance dimensions including task performance, OCB, and CWB. The objective of Study 2 was to examine the extent to which self-ratings are altered due to a supervisor's perspective and the extent to which congruence between SP rating and actual supervisor ratings depends on national culture. In particular, Korean employees were recruited in Study 2 for two reasons. First, as South Korea is an Eastern culture, it has been reported that Korean employees tend to rate themselves lower than their supervisors (Barron & Sackett, 2008). In addition, because of Confucian tradition, the social norm of modesty is prevalent in South Korea. Thus, results from South Korea can address the issue about whether the expected effects occur in an Eastern culture where a modesty bias in self-ratings is observed. The objective of Study 3 was to meta-analytically summarize the extent to which the self-ratings are altered due to adopting a supervisor's perspective and the magnitude of the SP congruence indices across work performance dimensions and across national cultures. An overview of the three studies is outlined in Table 3.

Table 3. An overview of the three studies

	Study 1	**Study 2**	**Study 3**
Method	Primary Study	Primary Study	Meta-analysis
Sample	U.S	Korean	Various
Performance Dimensions	Task Performance Three OCBs Two CWBs	Task Performance Three OCBs Two CWBs	Overall Performance Task Performance OCB
Direct-perspective Ratings	Yes	Yes	Yes
Supervisor-perspective Ratings	Yes	Yes	Yes
Actual Supervisor Ratings	No	Yes	Yes
Hypothesis Testing	H1, H2, H3, H4	H1, H2, H3, H4, H5, H6, H7, H8	*NA*

5. STUDY 1 – METHOD

5.1 Participants

One hundred seventy-six U.S. employees (53% females) were recruited from Mechanical Turk, an online research participant panel website. Participants were asked to participate in research examining relationships between employees' characteristics and their work behavior. On average, participants were 36.59 (*SD* = 12.07) years of age with a mean of 6.0 years of work experience. Participants worked in a wide variety of industries including customer service or retail (16.9%), education (14.7%), sales (10.7%), banking (10.7%), and health care (7.3%). The ethnic group breakdown consisted of 80.00% Caucasians, 5.00% Hispanics, 5.56% Asian, 6.11% African American, and 3.33% other.

5.2 Measures

Task Performance. Task performance was measured with seven items from Williams and Anderson (1991). Items were responded to on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (OCB). OCB was assessed with Lee and Allen's (2002) measures of OCB-I (8 items) and OCB-O (8 items). OCB-CH was measured using 10 items from Morrison and Phelps (1999). Items were responded to a 7- point frequency scale (1 = never, 2 = once a year, 3 = twice a year, 4 = several times a year, 5 = monthly, 6 = weekly, 7 = daily).

Counterproductive Workplace Behavior (CWB). CWB was measured with the 19-item scale developed by Bennett and Robinson (2000) to assess CWB-I (7 items) and CWB-O (11 items). Items were responded to on a 7-point frequency scale (1 = never, 2 = once a year, 3 = twice a year, 4 = several times a year, 5 = monthly, 6 = weekly, 7 = daily).

5.3 Study Procedure

Participants were asked to complete a questionnaire posted on Mechanical Turk. Employees who worked a minimum of 20 hours per week were allowed to participate. They were given 50 cents for participation. To detect nonconscientious/random responses from the online survey, two bogus/check items were developed based on Beach (1989) in which participants were instructed to provide a specific answer for each item: "Mark the option 'Strongly Disagree'" and "Mark the option 'Daily.'" After dropping 29 respondents who answered the bogus/check items incorrectly, 180 respondents were included in the final analysis. Participants were asked to rate task performance, three types of OCB, and two types of CWB from their own perspective, as well as from their supervisor's perspective. For example, one task performance item reads "I adequately complete assigned duties," whereas the supervisor-perspective version of the item read "My supervisor thinks I adequately complete assigned duties." A list of all items is presented in Appendix A.

6. STUDY 1 – RESULTS

Table 4 shows means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among the Study 1 variables. Hypothesis 1 predicted that SP ratings for (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH would be lower than DP self-ratings. The standardized mean differences are presented in Table 5. Positive *d* values indicate the DP ratings are higher than SP ratings. Results indicated that there were significant differences between perspectives in the ratings of task performance (d =.30, p <.01), OCB-I (d =.10, p <.05), and OCB-CH (d =.19, p <.01), respectively. Consistent with prediction, supervisor-perspective ratings for task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-O were lower than direct perspective ratings. Thus, H1a, H1b, and H1c were supported. However, the OCB-CH ratings were not statistically different from one another (d = -.02, p >.05). Thus, H1d was not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that SP ratings for (a) CWB-I, and (b) CWB-O would be lower than DP self-ratings. Results indicated that there were significant differences in the ratings of CWB-I and CWB-O (d = .19, p <.01; d = .34, p <.01, respectively), with SP ratings lower than DP ratings. Thus, both H2a and H2b were supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the mean difference between DP and SP ratings of task performance would be larger than the mean difference between DP and SP ratings of (a) OCB-I, (b) OCB-O, and (c) OCB-CH. A within-subjects 2 × 2 factorial ANOVA was conducted. One factor was perspective (direct vs. supervisor) and the other factor was job performance dimensions (task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-CH).

Results indicated that there was a significant main effect for perspective, F (1, 175) = 16.12, p <.01 and job performance dimension, F (1, 175) = 126.26, p <.01. However, the perspective × job performance dimension interaction was not significant for the OCB-I rating, F (1, 175) = 1.92, p >.05, indicating that the mean difference between DP vs. SP ratings of task performance was not significantly larger than the difference for OCB-I. Thus, H3a was not supported. Regarding H3b, the perspective × job performance dimension interaction was significant, F (1, 175) = 14.55, p <.05. A simple effects test indicated that the mean differences between DP vs. SP ratings for task performance (d = .24) were significantly larger than the mean differences for OCB-O (d = -.26). Thus, H3b was supported. Regarding H3c, the perspective × job performance dimension interaction was not significant for the OCB-CH rating, F (1, 175) = 0.22, p >.05, indicating that the mean difference between DP vs. SP ratings of task performance was not significantly larger than the mean difference between DP vs. SP ratings of OCB-CH. Thus, H3c was not supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the mean difference between DP and SP ratings of CWB-O would be larger than the mean difference between DP and SP ratings of CWB-I. A within-subjects 2 × 2 factorial ANOVA was conducted (i.e., one factor was perspective and the other factor was CWB ratings). Results indicated that there were significant main effects of both perspective, F (1, 175) = 35.20, p <.01 and CWB rating, F (1, 175) = 9.35, p <.01. Also, the perspective × CWB dimension interaction was statistically significant, F (1, 175) = 5.56, p <.05. A simple effects test indicated

that the mean difference (d = 0.31) between DP vs. SP ratings was larger for CWB-O than for CWB-I (d = 0.19). Thus, H4 was supported.

Table 4. *Intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations among variables in study 1*

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. TP_DP	.83											
2. TP_SP	.65	.84										
3. OCBI_DP	.20	.08	.85									
4. OCBI_SP	.11	.18	.76	.89								
5. OCBO_DP	.19	.11	.62	.63	.88							
6. OCBO_SP	.06	.21	.50	.72	.77	.92						
7. OCBCH_DP	.10	.00	.50	.44	.62	.50	.92					
8. OCBCH_SP	.00	.15	.43	.52	.56	.66	.81	.95				
9. CWBI_DP	-.43	-.38	-.01	-.04	.00	.00	.10	.12	.92			
10. CWBI_SP	-.34	-.43	.02	-.15	.03	-.14	.11	.01	.80	.95		
11. CWBO_DP	-.47	-.42	-.15	-.18	-.15	-.06	-.06	.03	.64	.45	.87	
12. CWBO_SP	-.51	-.64	-.08	-.24	-.04	-.17	.01	-.07	.64	.67	.74	.91
Mean	6.17	5.93	5.04	4.90	4.81	4.83	4.79	4.52	1.65	1.45	1.88	1.57
SD	0.72	0.86	1.15	1.35	1.28	1.48	1.32	1.54	1.08	1.03	0.93	0.87

Note. N = 176. If an absolute correlation is greater than .16, $p < .05$. TP = task performance; TP_DP = TP direct perspective; TP_SP = TP supervisor perspective; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; OCBI_DP = interpersonal target OCB direct perspective; OCBI_SP = interpersonal target OCB supervisor perspective; OCBI_DP = organizational target OCB direct perspective; OCBI_SP = organizational target OCB supervisor-perspective; OCBCH_DP = change oriented OCB direct perspective; OCBCH_SP = change oriented OCB supervisor-perspective, CWB = counterproductive work behavior; CWBI_DP = interpersonal target CWB direct perspective; CWBI_SP = interpersonal target CWB supervisor-perspective; CWBO_DP = organizational target CWB direct perspective; CWBO_SP = organizational target CWB supervisor-perspective; Coefficients alpha are on the diagonal.

Table 5. Standardized mean differences for direct and supervisor-perspective ratings in study 1

	Direct Perspective		Supervisor-Perspective		
Performance Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*d*
Task performance	6.17	0.72	5.93	0.86	0.30**
OCB					
OCB-I	5.04	1.15	4.90	1.34	0.10*
OCB-O	4.81	1.28	4.83	1.48	-0.02
OCB-CH	4.79	1.32	4.52	1.54	0.19**
CWB					
CWB-I	1.65	1.08	1.45	1.03	0.19**
CWB-O	1.88	0.93	1.57	0.87	0.34**

Note. N = 172-176. $^{*}p < .05$, $^{**}p < .01$ OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; OCB-I = individual-directed OCB; OCB-O = organizational-directed OCB; OCB-CH = change-oriented OCB; CWB = counterproductive work behavior; CWB-I = interpersonal target CWB; CWB-O = organizational target CWB.

7. STUDY 1 – DISCUSSION

The purpose of Study 1 was to examine how adopting a supervisor's perspective influences self-ratings of work performance on a sample of U.S. employees. Results indicated that all work dimensions examined were affected by the use of SP ratings. Specifically, adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower self-ratings of task performance, OCB-I, and OCB-CH than adopting a direct-perspective. These findings suggest that taking on a supervisor's perspective leads employees to lower self-ratings of positive work performance dimensions. Adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower ratings of negative work performance dimensions than adopting a direct-perspective. This finding suggests that employees underreport CWBs when taking on their supervisor's perspective, which is in line with the speculation and empirical support for the idea that supervisors do not have an adequate opportunity to witness all CWBs (Batarse & Berry, 2017). Furthermore, it was found that the changes in self-ratings were greater for task performance than for OCB-O, but not for OCB-I nor OCB-CH. Also, the changes in self-ratings from DP to SP were greater for CWB-O than for CWB-I.

Unfortunately, actual supervisor ratings were not collected in Study 1. Therefore, it is not clear whether adopting a supervisor's perspective brings self-ratings into closer alignment with actual supervisor ratings than adopting a direct-perspective. This limitation was addressed in Study 2 by gathering actual supervisor ratings. Additionally, the extent to which mean shifts in self-ratings and the congruence

between self and supervisor ratings occur in an Eastern culture was also examined in Study 2.

8. STUDY 2 – METHOD

8.1 Participants

One hundred seventy-four employee-supervisor dyads in South Korea were recruited. The employee sample was 61% males with an average age of 36.59 (*SD* = 12.07) and a mean of 5.57 (*SD* = 7.13) years of work experience. The supervisor sample was 78% males with an average age of 45.02 (*SD* = 10.06) and a mean of 11.70 (*SD* = 6.97) years of work experience. The sample worked in a wide variety of industries including automotive (38.5%), banking (20.1%), education (19.5%), customer service (16.9%), education (14.7%), sales (7.5%), construction (5.7%), food/restaurant (4.0%), health care (1.7%), and others (2.9%).

8.2 Measures

Work performance dimensions (task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, CWB-I, and CWB-O) were all assessed with the same instruments used in Study 1 except for OCB-CH.

OCB-CH. OCB-CH was assessed with Van Dyne and LePine's (1998) 6-item measure of voice behavior on a 7-point frequency scale (1 = never, 2 = once a year, 3 = twice a year, 4 = several times a year, 5 = monthly, 6 = weekly, 7 = daily).

All measures in the survey were translated from English into Korean using back-translation procedures (Brislin, 1980). First, all measures were translated into Korean by a bilingual expert. Then another bilingual expert independently translated the Korean version of the survey back into English in order to evaluate the semantic

equivalence of the two versions. As an additional step to further ensure a high level of equivalence, four bilinguals were asked to confirm that all measures were appropriately translated into Korean. Specifically, they were asked to rate the extent to which the back-translated items are similar to the original English items on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = very different to 5 = very similar). A mean of all of sixty work performance items was 4.77 (*SD* = .43). The eight items that were rated below 4.5 were further reviewed and edited. Finally, a subject-matter expert who is a bilingual checked all measures for their interpretability in Korean prior to administrating the survey. A copy of the survey as it was administered (in Korean) appears in Appendix B.

8.3 Procedure

Participants were recruited using a snowball sampling approach. That is, potential respondents were first identified through the principal investigator's social network (i.e., former colleagues, friends, and family members) and subsequently through their corresponding networks. Respondents then served as referrals and spread the word about the study. When people expressed an interest in participating in the study, the referrals gave them the author's e-mail address. Upon agreeing to participate, the survey package was distributed to participants directly. The package contained the consent form, the questionnaires for both the employee and his/her supervisor, and a self-addressed stamped envelope. Out of 226 survey packages, 174 paired supervisor-employee responses (76.99%) were returned, identified, and included in the final analysis.

Both employees and supervisors were given the equivalent of a $4 gift card as a compensation for participation. Participants were asked to rate all work performance dimensions from their own perspective, as well as their supervisor's perspective. In addition, supervisors rated their employees using the same performance measures but altered to reflect third person (traditional supervisor ratings). To control for any possible order effects, the perspective-rating condition was counterbalanced in the questionnaire (DP ratings followed by SP ratings: $n = 88$; SP ratings followed by DP ratings: $n = 86$). Independent *t*-tests were conducted to determine whether the order influenced the mean difference between two perspective ratings. Results indicated that the order of administration did not significantly affect the difference between the ratings (see Appendix C).

9. STUDY 2 – RESULTS

Table 6 shows means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among Study2 variables. Hypothesis 1 predicted that SP ratings for (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH would be lower than the DP ratings. The standardized mean differences are presented in Table 7. Consistent with Study 1, positive *d* values indicate the DP direct perspective ratings are higher than SP ratings. Results indicated that there were significant differences between perspective ratings for all four job performance dimensions, task performance (d =.58, p <.01), OCB-I (d =.40, p <.01), OCB-O (d =.38, p <.01), and OCB-CH (d =.22, p <.05) showing that the self-rated positive work performance dimensions were lower when adopting a supervisor's perspective compared to using the direct perspective. Thus, H1a, H1b, H1c, and H1d were supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that SP ratings for (a) CWB-I and (b) CWB-O would be lower than DP ratings. Results indicated that there was not a significant difference in CWB-I ratings (d = .00, p >.05). Thus, H2a was not supported. Regarding H2b, results indicated that contrary to the expectation, SP ratings of CWB-O were significantly higher than DP ratings of CWB-O (d = -.15, p <.01). Thus, H2b was also not supported.

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the mean difference between DP and SP ratings of task performance will be larger than the mean difference between DP and SP ratings of

Table 6. Intercorrelations, means, and standard deviations among variables in study 2

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. TP_ DP	.85																	
2. TP_SP	.50	.87																
3. TP_S	.22	.25	.92															
4. OCBI_DP	.40	.12	.12	.85														
5. OCBI_SP	.30	.28	.25	.60	.88													
6. OCBI_S	-.02	.20	.50	.17	.30	.83												
7. OCBO_DP	.56	.35	.17	.60	.45	.05	.91											
8. OCBO_SP	.43	.44	.20	.44	.69	.20	.67	.91										
9. OCBO_S	.15	.20	.63	.22	.31	.66	.28	.22	.92									
10. OCBCH_DP	.50	.33	.19	.58	.45	.06	.75	.63	.31	.92								
11. OCBCH _SP	.42	.40	.29	.48	.62	.24	.60	.76	.35	.77	.92							
12. OCBCH _S	.16	.16	.48	.19	.17	.48	.22	.16	.78	.36	.38	.92						
13. CWBI_DP	-.27	-.22	-.13	-.02	-.07	.03	-.06	-.12	-.03	.03	.00	-.06	.93					
14. CWBI_SP	-.30	-.23	-.15	-.05	-.16	-.02	-.12	-.20	-.05	-.03	-.10	.02	.80	.95				
15. CWBI_S	-.05	-.05	-.36	.13	-.07	-.28	.10	-.05	-.26	.64	-.02	-.10	.18	.23	.91			
16. CWBO_DP	-.38	-.26	-.20	-.09	-.09	.31	-.21	-.18	-.05	-.10	-.10	.02	.75	.75	.12	.94		
17. CWBO_SP	-.37	-.36	-.22	-.10	-.20	-.08	-.26	-.26	-.17	-.15	-.22	-.06	.66	.83	.17	.79	.94	
18. CWBO_S	-.13	-.13	-.53	.11	-.07	-.25	.06	-.00	-.31	-.01	-.03	-.15	.13	.23	.72	.17	.27	.93
Mean	5.75	5.29	5.74	4.66	4.23	5.02	4.91	4.53	5.05	4.60	4.35	4.66	1.56	1.56	1.58	1.47	1.58	1.57
SD	0.77	0.85	0.87	1.02	1.15	1.04	1.00	1.06	0.95	1.08	1.17	1.14	0.75	0.73	0.71	0.68	0.73	0.70

Note. N = 169-174. If an absolute correlation is greater than .16, $p < .05$. TP = task performance; TP_DP = TP direct perspective; TP_SP = TP supervisor-perspective; TB_S = TP supervisor rating; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; OCBI = interpersonal target OCB; OCBO = organizational target OCB; OCBI_DP = OCBI direct perspective; OCBI_SP = OCBI supervisor perspective; OCBI_S = OCBI supervisor rating; OCBO_DP = OCBO direct perspective; OCBO_SP = OCBO supervisor-perspective; OCBO_S = OCBO supervisor rating; OCBCH = change oriented OCB; OCBCH_DP = OCBCH direct perspective; OCBCH_SP = OCBCH supervisor-perspective; OCBCH_S = OCBCH supervisor rating; CWB

= counterproductive work behavior; CWBI = interpersonal target CWB; CWBI_DP = CWBI direct perspective; CWBI_SP = CWBI supervisor-perspective; CWBI_S = CWBI supervisor rating; CWBO = organizational target CWB; CWBO_DP = CWBO direct perspective; CWBO_SP = CWBO supervisor-perspective; CWBO_S = CWBO supervisor rating; Coefficients alpha are on the diagonal.

Table 7. Standardized mean differences for direct and supervisor-perspective ratings, and supervisor-ratings in study 2

	Direct Perspective (1)		Supervisor - Perspective (2)		Supervisor Rating (3)		(1) vs. (2)	(1) vs. (3)	(2) vs. (3)
Dimension	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*d*	*d*	*d*
Task performance	5.75	0.77	5.29	0.85	5.74	0.87	.58**	.01	-.52**
OCB									
OCB-I	4.67	1.02	4.24	1.15	5.03	1.05	.40**	-.72**	-.61**
OCB-O	4.91	1.01	4.50	1.12	5.06	0.96	.38**	-.15	-.54**
OCB-CH	4.60	1.08	4.35	1.17	4.66	1.14	.22*	-.05	-.27*
CWB									
CWB-I	1.56	.76	1.56	.74	1.58	.71	.00	-.03	-.03
CWB-O	1.47	.69	1.58	.73	1.57	.69	-.15**	-.14	.01

Note. N = 168-171. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$ (two-tailed), OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; OCB-I = individual-directed OCB; OCB-O = organizational-directed OCB. OCB-CH = change oriented OCB. CWB = counterproductive work behavior; CWB-I = interpersonal target CWB; CWB-O = organizational target CWB.

(a) OCB-I, (b) OCB-O, and (c) OCB-CH. A within-subjects 2 × 2 factorial ANOVA was conducted. One factor was perspective (direct vs. supervisor) and the other factor was job performance dimension (task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, or OCB-CH). Regarding H3a, results indicated that there was a significant main effect for perspective, F (1, 168) = 61.54, p <.01 and job performance dimension, F (1, 168) = 197.10, p <.01. However, the perspective rating × job performance dimension interaction was not significant for the OCB-I rating, F (1, 168) = 0.02, p >.05, indicating that the DP vs. SP mean difference for task performance ratings was not significantly larger than the mean difference for OCB-I ratings. Thus, H3a was not supported. Regarding H3b, the perspective × job performance dimension interaction

was not significant for the OCB-O rating, F (1, 168) = 0.65, p >.05, indicating that the DP vs. SP mean difference for task performance ratings was not significantly larger than the mean difference for OCB-O ratings. Thus, H3b was not supported. Regarding H3c, the perspective × job performance dimension interaction was significant for OCB-CH, F (1, 167) = 6.76, p <.05. A simple effects test indicated that the mean difference between the DP vs. SP ratings for task performance (d = 0.44) was larger than the mean difference for OCB-CH (d = 0.24). Thus, H3c was supported.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the mean differences between DP and SP ratings of CWB-O would be larger than the mean differences between DP and SP ratings of CWB-I. A within-subjects 2 × 2 factorial ANOVA was conducted. One factor was perspective (direct vs. supervisor) and the other factor was CWB dimension (CWB-I and CWB-O). Results indicated that there were no significant main effects for perspective, F (1, 167) = 3.31, p >.05 nor CWB dimension, F (1, 167) = 1.19, p >.05. However, the perspective × CWB dimension interaction was statistically significant, F (1, 167) = 8.06, p <.05. A simple effect test indicated that the mean difference between DP vs. SP ratings for CWB-O (d = 0.11) was larger than the mean difference for CWB-I (d = 0.00). Thus, H4 was supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that the mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH would be smaller when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective. Regarding task performance, results indicated that there was not a significant difference between DP ratings (M = 5.75, SD = .77) and actual supervisor

ratings (M = 5.74, SD = .87; d = .01, p >.05). There was, however, a significant mean difference between SP ratings (M = 5.29, SD = .85) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 5.74, SD = .87; d = -.52, p <.01) for task performance. This result suggests that contrary to the prediction, the self-supervisor rating mean difference for task performance was significantly larger rather than smaller when employees were asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective rather than using their own perspective. Thus, H5a was not supported.

Regarding OCB-I, there was a significant difference between DP ratings (M = 4.67, SD = 1.02) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 5.03, SD = 1.05; d = -.34, p >.01). In addition, there was a significant mean difference between SP ratings (M = 4.24, SD = 1.15) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 5.03, SD = 1.05; d = -.72, p <.01) for OCB-I. This result indicated that contrary to the prediction, self-supervisor rating mean difference for OCB-I was significantly larger rather than smaller when employees were asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective rather than using their own perspective. Thus, H5b was not supported.

Regarding OCB-O, there was not a significant mean difference between DP ratings (M = 4.91, SD = 1.01) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 5.06, SD = .96; d = -.15, p <.05). In addition, there was a significant mean difference between SP ratings (M = 4.50, SD = 1.12) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 5.06, SD = .96; d = -.54, p <.01). This result indicated that contrary to the expectation, the self-supervisor rating mean difference for OCB-O was significantly larger rather than smaller when employees

were asked to adopt their SP rather than using their own perspective. Thus, H5c was not supported.

Regarding OCB-CH, there was not a significant mean difference between DP ratings (M = 4.60, SD = 1.08) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 4.66, SD = 1.14; d = -.05, p >.05). However, there was a significant mean difference for OCB-CH between SP ratings (M = 4.35, SD = 1.17) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 4.66, SD = 1.14; d = -.54, p <.01). This result indicated that contrary to the expectation, the self-supervisor rating mean difference for OCB-CH was significantly larger rather than smaller when employees were asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective than when employees used their own perspective rather than their own perspective. Thus, H5d was not supported.

Hypothesis 6 predicted that the mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of (a) CWB-I and (b) CWB-O would be smaller when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective. Results indicated that there was not a significant mean difference between DP ratings (M = 1.56, SD = .76) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 1.58, SD = .71; d = -.03, p >.05) for CWB-I. Likewise, there was not a significant mean difference for CWB-I between SP ratings (M = 1.56, SD = .74) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 1.58, SD = .71; d = -.03, p >.05). This result indicated that contrary to the prediction, the self-supervisor rating difference for CWB-I did not significantly differ regardless of the two perspective-ratings. Thus, H6a was not supported.

Regarding CWB-O, there was not a significant mean difference between DP ratings (M = 1.47, SD = .69) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 1.57, SD = .69; d = -.14, p >.05). Likewise, there was not a significant mean difference between SP ratings (M = 1.58, SD = .73) and actual supervisor ratings (M = 1.57, SD = .69; d = .01, p >.05) for CWB-O. This result indicated that contrary to the prediction, the self-supervisor rating difference for CWB-O did not significantly differ regardless of the two perspective-ratings. Thus, H6b was not supported.

Hypothesis 7 predicted that the correlations between self- supervisor ratings of (a) task performance, (b) OCB-I, (c) OCB-O, and (d) OCB-CH would be larger when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective. The correlations between DP ratings and actual supervisor ratings for all four work performance dimensions were significant. Similarly, the correlations between SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings for all four work performance dimensions were significant. Significance tests of the differences between two correlations (i.e., the correlation between DP ratings and supervisor ratings vs. the correlation between SP ratings and supervisor ratings) were conducted (See Table 8). Regarding task performance, results indicated that the correlation between the SP ratings and actual supervisor-ratings was not significantly larger than the correlation between the DP ratings and actual supervisor-ratings (z = .40, p > .05). Thus, H7a was not supported. Regarding OCB-I, results indicated that the correlation between the SP ratings and actual supervisor-ratings was significantly larger than the correlation between the DP ratings and actual supervisor ratings (z = 1.95, p < .05). Thus, H7b

Table 8. Correlations between the direct and supervisor-perspective ratings and supervisor ratings in study 2

Performance Dimension	Direct Perspective with Supervisor-ratings (1)	Supervisor-Perspective with Supervisor-ratings (2)	Direct Perspective with Supervisor-Perspective (3)	Significance test of the difference between correlations (1) vs. (2)
Task performance	.22**	.25**	.50**	.40
OCB				
OCB-I	.17*	.30**	.60**	1.95*
OCB-O	.28**	.22**	.68**	-1.00
OCB-CH	.36**	.38**	.77**	.41
CWB				
CWB-I	.18*	.23**	.80**	1.04
CWB-O	.17*	.27**	.80**	2.10*

Note. N = 168-171. *$p < .05$, **$p < .01$ (two-tailed), OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; OCB-I = individual-directed OCB; OCB-O = organizational-directed OCB. OCB-CH = change oriented OCB; CWB = counterproductive work behavior; CWB-I = interpersonal target CWB; CWB-O = organizational target CWB.

were supported. Regarding OCB-O, results indicated that contrary to the expectation, the correlation between the DP rating and actual supervisor ratings was higher than the correlation between the SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings, although the differences were not statistically significant (z = -1.00, $p > .05$). Thus, H7c was not supported. Regarding OCB-CH, results indicated that the correlation between the SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings was not significantly larger than the correlation between the DP ratings and actual supervisor-ratings (z = .41, $p > .05$). Thus, H7d was not supported.

Hypothesis 8 predicted that the correlations between self and supervisor ratings of (a) CWB-I and (b) CWB-O would be larger when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective. Results indicated that contrary to the prediction, the correlation for CWB-I between the DP ratings and actual supervisor ratings was not significantly larger than the correlation between the SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings ($z = 1.04$, $p > .05$). Thus, H8a was not supported. Regarding CWB-O, results indicated that contrary to the prediction, the correlation between the DP ratings and actual supervisor-ratings was not significantly larger than the correlation between the SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings ($z = 2.10$, $p < .05$). Thus, H8b was not supported.

10. STUDY 2 – DISCUSSION

The objective of Study 2 was to examine whether the effect of taking on a supervisor's perspective generalizes to Eastern cultures by using a sample of Korean employee-supervisor dyads. Results indicated that most of the hypotheses were not supported. In fact, some findings were the opposite direction from Study 1. Specifically, for positive work performance dimensions, adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower self-reported means of task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-CH ratings than adopting their own perspective ratings in Korea, which is consistent with the results in Study 1. However, for negative work performance dimensions, the means of CWB-I ratings from a supervisor's perspective were not different from the means of CWB-I ratings from their own perspective. In addition, taking on the supervisor-perspective resulted in higher means of self-reported CWB-O compared to taking on their own perspective. In other words, Korean employees reported more CWB-O when they adopted their supervisor's perspective than when they adopted their own perspective.

It was posited that mean differences between direct vs. supervisor-perspective would be greater for task performance than for OCB-I, OCB-O, and OCB-CH. Results indicated that the mean changes in task performance ratings were larger than the mean changes in only one of the OCB dimension (OCB-CH) ratings. Also, the mean changes in CWB-O ratings between direct vs. supervisor-perspective were larger than the mean change in CWB-I ratings.

More importantly, the posited effects of the supervisor perspective-taking on rater agreement did not occur in Korean context. It was posited that the mean differences would be small when employees are asked to rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective compared to their own perspective. Contrary to the expectation, adopting a supervisor's perspective did not help to decrease mean differences between self and supervisor ratings for all positive job performance domains. In fact, taking on the supervisor-perspective led to larger mean differences for task performance, and all three types of OCB in Korean context. Thus, the use of supervisor-perspective ratings in Korea might not be a viable way to reduce the mean differences between self- and supervisor ratings for positive work dimensions. Concerning negative work behaviors, it was posited that the mean differences would be smaller when employees use their own perspective than when employees are asked to rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective. Results showed that contrary to expectation, there was no mean difference between self- and supervisor ratings for CWB-I and CWB-O regardless of the two perspective-ratings. That is, altering the rater perspective did not influence the ratings for CWBs for this Korean sample.

It was posited that the correlations between self and supervisor-ratings will be improved when employees are asked to rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective compared to their own perspective. Results indicated that taking on the supervisor-perspective led to improved correlations between self- and supervisor ratings for OCB-I ratings. However, adopting a supervisor's perspective did not improve the correlation for task performance, OCB-O, and OCB-CH, which is not consistent with the

prediction. Concerning negative work behaviors, it was posited that adopting a direct-perspective will result in higher correlations for CWB-O between self and supervisor ratings than adopting a supervisor's perspective. However, unexpectedly, taking on the supervisor-perspective led to higher correlations between self- and supervisor ratings for CWB-I ratings, although the difference between correlations was not significant. In sum, in Korea adopting a supervisor's perspective of positive work performance dimensions may not be a viable way to improve the correlation, whereas adopting a supervisor's perspective appears to increase the correlation for negative work performance dimensions. A summary of whether hypotheses were supported in Study 1 and Study 2 is presented in Table 9.

Table 9. A summary of hypotheses

A list of hypotheses	Study 1 U.S.	Study 2 Korea
1a: Supervisor-perspective ratings for task performance will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.	Supported	Supported
1b: Supervisor-perspective ratings for OCB-I will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.	Supported	Supported
1c: Supervisor-perspective ratings for OCB-O will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.	Not supported	Supported
1d: Supervisor-perspective ratings for OCB-CH will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.	Supported	Supported
2a: Supervisor-perspective ratings for CWB-I will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.	Supported	Not supported
2b: Supervisor-perspective ratings for CWB-O will be lower than direct perspective self-ratings.	Supported	Not supported
3a: The mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of task performance will be larger than the mean difference between direct- and supervisor- perspective ratings of OCB-I.	Not supported	Not supported
3b: The mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of task performance will be larger than the mean difference between direct- and supervisor- perspective ratings of OCB-O.	Supported	Not Supported
3c: The mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of task performance will be larger than the mean difference between direct- and supervisor- perspective ratings of OCB-CH.	Not supported	Supported
4: The mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of CWB-O will be larger than the mean difference between direct- and supervisor-perspective ratings of CWB-I.	Supported	Supported
5a: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of task performance will be smaller when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported
5b: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of OCB-I will be smaller when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported

Table 9. Continued

A list of hypotheses	Study 1 U.S.	Study 2 Korea
5c: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of OCB-O will be smaller when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported
5d: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of OCB-CH will be smaller when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported
6a: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of CWB-I will be smaller when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective.	NA	Not supported
6b: The mean differences in self-supervisor ratings of CWB-I will be smaller when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective.	NA	Not supported
7a: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of task performance will be larger when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported
7b: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of OCB-I will be larger when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Supported
7c: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of OCB-O will be larger when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported
7d: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of OCB-CH will be larger when employees rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.	NA	Not supported
8a: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of CWB-I will be larger when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective.	NA	Not supported
8b: The correlations between self- and supervisor ratings of CWB-O will be larger when employees rate themselves from their own perspective than from a supervisor's perspective.	NA	Not Supported

11. STUDY 3 – METHOD

11.1 Literature Search

To locate primary studies for a meta-analysis, two main searches were conducted. First, a keyword search for published and unpublished papers was conducted using the PsycINFO, ABI/Inform, Proquest Dissertations databases, and metaBUS. The following keywords that represent adopting a supervisor's perspective in the literature were searched including: meta-perspective, common-perspective, meta-perception, reflected appraisal, and meta-insight. Second, the Web of Science was used to identify any articles that cited either Smircich and Chesser (1981) or Schoorman and Mayer (2008), the two key published articles examining the supervisor-perspective effect in the context of performance appraisal.

11.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

To be included in the meta-analysis, the primary study had to contain (1) supervisor-perspective ratings of at least one work performance dimension and at least one other set of ratings – either direct-perspective ratings or actual supervisor ratings of job performance, and (2) adequate statistical information to calculate at least one of the congruence estimates – either mean difference-*d* or correlation-*r*. Only primary studies based on samples of working individuals were included. This resulted in a final database of eight studies from which nine independent samples containing 34 independent effect sizes for *d* and 36 independent effect sizes for *r* (See Appendix D). The data from Study 1 and Study 2 were not included in the meta-analysis.

11.3 Procedures

For each sample, the mean and standard deviation for each set of ratings (direct perspective, supervisor-perspective, and supervisor ratings), as well as any correlations among the ratings, were recorded. Additionally, the following information was coded as posited moderators: (1) culture and (2) work performance dimensions. The country from which the sample was derived was coded to investigate whether national culture influences the supervisor-perspective effects. Given that the final data had only few countries, they were coded as either Eastern (China $k = 9$, and Korea $k = 6$) or Western culture (U.S. $k = 15$). Importantly, data from Mexico were excluded when Eastern-Western comparisons were made in a meta-analysis.[1]

Work performance constructs assessed were coded to investigate whether the supervisor perspective effects are influenced by the construct assessed. For studies that do not use the labels for specific work performance dimensions used in this meta-analysis, the definition and/or conceptualization of the construct in the primary study was examined in order to determine if the construct assessed is synonymous with task performance, OCB-I, OCB-O, OCB-CH, CWB-I, or CWB-O. The final data had twenty-five independent effect sizes that correspond to the measure of task

[1]It was unclear how to group data from Mexico with the data from other countries for several reasons. First, although Mexico is high on collectivism (Hofstede, 2001) like China and Korea, it is geographically closer to the United States. Second, given that the underlying mechanism for modesty bias in self-ratings is unclear, it is unsure to retain Mexico data with the other collectivistic countries. Specifically, although it has been speculated that modesty bias might be associated with collectivism by Fahr et al. 1991, Barron and Sackett (2008) suggested that other factors (e.g., self-effacement tendency in Asian cultures) may better explain this bias. Finally, the self-ratings gathered from Mexico in Goris (2014) did not appear to be strongly influenced by modesty bias. Given this uncertainty, data from Mexico was excluded from Eastern and Western comparisons. Additional analyses in which data from Mexico were included with other collectivistic countries are provided in Appendix E and F.

performance. However, none of the primary studies included any of OCB-I, OCB-O, OCW-CH, CWB-I, or CWB-O ratings. After examining the definitions and conceptualizations of the constructs used in the primary studies, a total of 11 independent effect sizes for overall OCB was identified and coded (e.g., interpersonal skills, contextual performance, and innovative performance).

Hunter and Schmidt's (2004) "bare bones meta-analysis" methods were used to calculate sample-size-weighted mean *d*s and *r*s, the sample-size-weighted observed standard deviations for *d* and *r*, the residual standard deviations after subtracting out the expected variance due to sampling error, and the percentage of variance attributable to sampling error. The overall moderator analyses were carried out when the percentage of variance attributable to sampling error was less than 75% and the residual standard deviation was large enough to support a search for moderators (Hunter & Schmidt, 2004). Also, the statistic Q_B was used to test whether the meta-analytic mean differences or correlations differ across the two moderator categories.

12. STUDY 3 – RESULTS

Prior to investigating the two moderators, a composite (i.e., aggregate ratings of task performance and OCB) was formed to examine meta-analytic estimates of the mean shift in self-ratings due to perspective changing and the two congruence indices with actual supervisor ratings. The meta-analyses of overall mean differences are presented in Table 10. Positive *d*-value indicates that the first comparison group (direct perspective or supervisor-perspective) is higher than the other comparison group (supervisor-perspective or supervisor ratings). The overall work performance d_m between DP and SP ratings was .12, indicating that on average, employees lowered their ratings when adopting their supervisor's perspective. The difference between the SP rating and the actual supervisor rating was smaller (d_m = .07) than the difference between the DP and actual supervisor rating (d_m = .23; Q_B = 17.47, p < .01), indicating that employees reported a more similar level of work performance to their supervisors when adopting their supervisor's perspective than when evaluating their performance from their own perspective.

The results for the meta-analyses of overall correlations are presented in Table 11. The overall work performance correlation (i.e., aggregate ratings of performance) between DP and SP ratings was .63. More importantly, the overall correlation between SP and actual supervisor ratings was significantly larger (r_m = .24) than the overall correlation between DP and actual supervisor rating (r_m = .18; Q_B = 12.32, p < .01),

demonstrating that using supervisor-perspective ratings is likely to result in improved correlations between self- and supervisor ratings.

To investigate whether the two congruence indices differ as a function of the two moderators (work performance dimensions and culture), further meta-analyses of mean differences and correlations were conducted for national culture (i.e., Western vs. Eastern) at the construct level (i.e., task performance vs. OCB) (See Table 10 and Table 11). Unfortunately, there were not enough independent samples in each work performance dimension category, so a moderator analyses for work performance dimensions were not conducted within each culture. Instead, the moderator analyses for culture were conducted by aggregating the positive work performance measures (task performance and all OCBs).

12.1 Western versus Eastern Cultures: Mean Shift

In Western cultures, the average *d* between DP and SP ratings was .19, indicating that Western employees rated themselves lower when adopting a supervisor's perspective than when using their own perspective. In Eastern cultures, the average *d* between DP and SP ratings was .11, indicating that Eastern Asian employees rated themselves lower when adopting a supervisor's perspective than when using their own perspective. In sum, taking the perspective of a supervisor resulted in lower self-ratings in both Western and Eastern cultures, which is consistent with the findings in Study 1 and Study 2.

Table 10. Meta-analysis results: mean differences between direct perspective, supervisor-perspective and actual supervisor ratings of work performance dimensions

	N	*k*	d_m	SD_d	SD_{res}	% var.
Overall analysis						
DP ratings and SP ratings	2577	10	.12	0.17	.00	100
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings	2557	10	.23	0.21	.17	34.25
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings	3110	14	.07	0.24	.19	31.67
Western cultures						
DP ratings and SP ratings						
Task performance	918	3	.21	0.15	.15	54.62
OCB	345	1	.12	-	-	-
Combined	1263	4	.19	0.15	.15	34.92
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	918	3	.37	0.08	.08	67.22
OCB	345	1	.19	-	-	-
Combined	1263	4	.33	0.08	.08	62.00
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	1031	4	.19	0.00	.00	100
OCB	345	1	.09	-	-	-
Combined	1376	5	.16	0.00	.00	100
Eastern cultures						
DP ratings and SP ratings						
Task performance	409	2	.01	0.05	.00	100
OCB	409	2	.21	0.07	.00	100
Combined	818	4	.11	0.12	.00	100
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	409	2	-.03	0.12	.00	100
OCB	409	2	.07	0.14	.03	93.32
Combined	818	4	.02	0.14	.04	90.21
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	549	3	-.12	0.20	.14	51.74
OCB	689	4	-.17	0.10	.00	100
Combined	1238	7	-.14	0.16	.05	87.86

Note. *k* = number of effect sizes included in the meta-analysis; Positive *d*-values indicate the first comparison group (direct or supervisor-perspective) means were higher than the second comparison group (supervisor-perspective or supervisor ratings) means; d_m = mean sample size-weighted *d*-value; SD_d = sample size-weighted observed standard deviation of *d*-values; SD_{res} = standard deviation of *d*-values after subtracting out the expected variance due to sampling error; % var. = percentage of variance attributable to sampling error. Data from Mexico were excluded when Western-Eastern cultures were compared.

Table 11. Meta-analysis results: correlations between direct perspective, supervisor-perspective, and actual supervisor ratings of work performance dimensions

	N	*k*	r_m	SD_r	SD_{res}	% var.
Overall analysis						
DP ratings and SP ratings	2577	10	.63	0.16	.15	5.23
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings	2577	10	.18	0.09	.06	44.17
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings	3205	16	.24	0.20	.18	11.17
Western cultures						
DP ratings and SP ratings						
Task performance	918	3	.61	0.02	.13	7.14
OCB	345	1	.61	-	-	-
Combined	1263	4	.61	0.01	.10	9.48
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	918	3	.17	0.01	.11	21.14
OCB	345	1	.08	-	-	-
Combined	1263	4	.15	0.01	.10	24.65
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	1126	6	.34	0.08	.28	5.03
OCB	345	1	.24	-	-	-
Combined	1471	7	.31	0.07	.25	5.92
Eastern cultures						
DP ratings and SP ratings						
Task performance	409	2	.78	0.02	.00	100
OCB	409	2	.83	0.00	.00	100
Combined	818	4	.80	0.03	.02	59.98
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	409	2	.20	0.01	.00	100
OCB	409	2	.20	0.07	.04	72.58
Combined	818	4	.20	0.05	.00	100
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	549	3	.27	0.07	.01	95.46
OCB	689	4	.12	0.09	.05	66.27
Combined	1238	7	.18	0.11	.08	42.78

Note. k = number of effect sizes included in the meta-analysis; r_m = mean sample sized-weighted correlation; SD_r = mean sample size-weighted observed standard deviation of correlation; SD_{res} = standard deviation of *d*-values after subtracting out the expected variance due to sampling error; % var. = percentage of variance attributable to sampling error. Data from Mexico were excluded when Western-Eastern cultures were compared.

12.2 Western versus Eastern Cultures: Congruence-*d*

The average *d* between SP and actual supervisor ratings in Western cultures was .16, indicating that Western employees' SP ratings were lower relative to actual supervisor ratings. Also, the homogeneity analyses were conducted to determine the extent to which the meta-analytic mean differences between DP ratings and actual supervisor ratings were different from the meta-analytic mean differences between SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings (see Figure 2). Results revealed that the difference between the SP and the actual supervisor ratings was significantly smaller (d_m = .16) than the difference between the DP and the actual supervisor rating (d_m = .33; Q_B = 8.20, $p < .05$). This suggests that the mean difference between self- and supervisor ratings of an overall work performance construct in Western cultures was smaller when employees were asked to rate themselves while adopting a supervisor's perspective rather than using their own perspective.

The average *d* between SP and actual supervisor ratings in Eastern cultures was -.14, indicating that Eastern employees' SP ratings were lower than actual supervisor ratings. Also, the homogeneity analyses were conducted to determine the extent to which the meta-analytic mean differences between DP and actual supervisor ratings were different from the meta-analytic mean differences between SP and actual supervisor ratings (see Figure 2). Results revealed that the difference between the SP and the actual supervisor ratings was significantly larger (d_m = -.14) than the difference between the DP and the actual supervisor ratings (d_m = .02; Q_B = 7.00, $p < .01$). This suggests that the mean difference between self- and supervisor ratings was larger in

Eastern cultures when employees were asked to rate themselves while adopting a supervisor's perspective rather than using their own perspective.

12.3 Western versus Eastern Cultures: Congruence-*r*

In Western cultures, the average *r* between DP and actual supervisor ratings was .15. In Eastern cultures, the average *r* between DP and actual supervisor ratings was .20. The homogeneity analyses were conducted based on the Q statistic to test the extent to which the meta-analytic correlations between DP and actual supervisor ratings were different from the meta-analytic correlations between SP and actual supervisor ratings (see Figure 3). Results revealed that in Western cultures, the correlation between SP and actual supervisor ratings (r_m = .31) was significantly larger

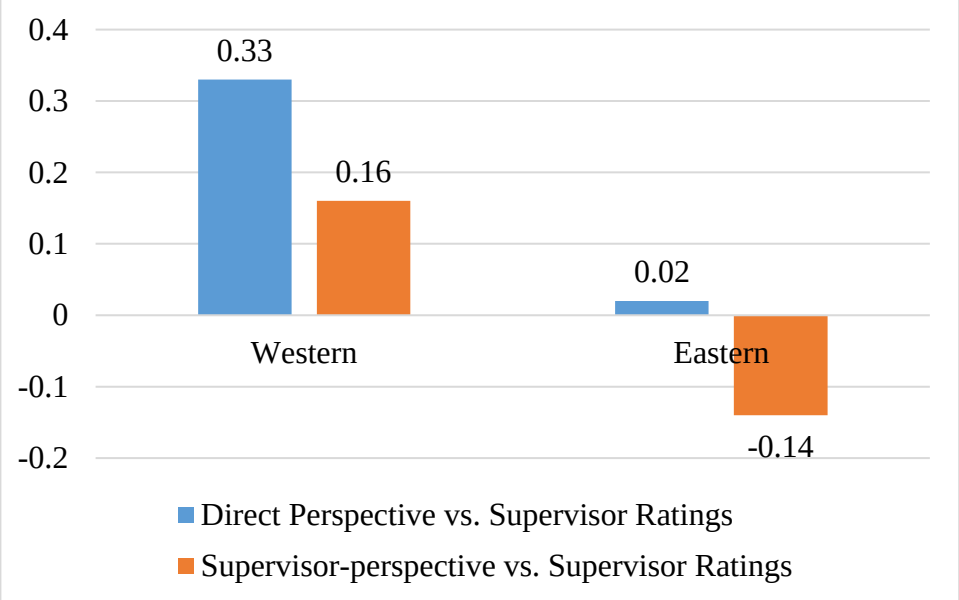

Figure 1. Meta-analytic estimates of mean differences between direct and supervisor ratings and mean differences between supervisor-perspective and supervisor ratings across cultures

than the correlation between DP and actual supervisor ratings (r_m = .15; Q_B = 39.07, p < .01). This indicates that in Western cultures, the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings is improved when employees are asked to rate themselves while adopting their supervisor's perspective. On the other hand, in Eastern cultures, the correlation between SP and actual supervisor ratings (r_m = .18) was not significantly larger than the correlation between DP vs. actual supervisor ratings (r_m = .20; Q_B = 0.13, p > .05). This indicates that in Eastern cultures, the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings is not significantly improved when employees are asked to rate themselves while adopting their supervisor's perspective.

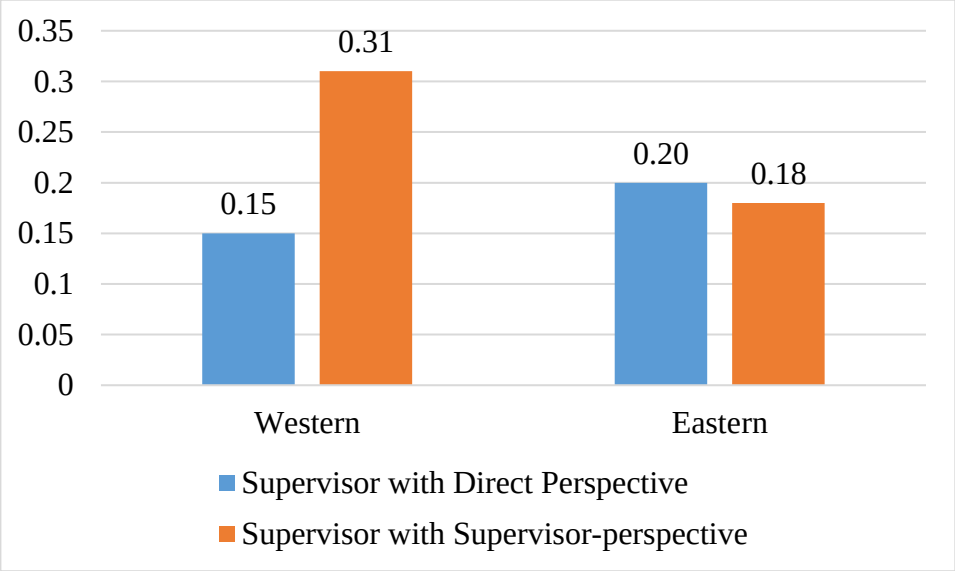

Figure 2. Meta-analytic estimates of correlations between supervisor-perspective and supervisor ratings as well as correlations between direct perspective and supervisor ratings across cultures

13. STUDY 3 – DISCUSSION

The objective of Study 3 was to meta-analytically examine the extent to which self-ratings are altered due to adopting a supervisor's perspective and the magnitudes of the two congruence indices (mean differences and correlations) vary depending on work performance dimensions and national cultures. The meta-analytic results indicated that the self-ratings varied as a function of the two perspectives. Specifically, employees rated themselves lower when adopting a supervisor's perspective than when using their own perspective. In addition, employees rated themselves more similarly to their supervisor when adopting a supervisor's perspective. The meta-analytic correlations indicated that the correlations between self- and supervisor ratings were higher when employees rated themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective.

More importantly, the moderator analyses revealed that the two indices of congruence differed considerably across cultures. Specifically, the *d* values between DP and SP ratings were both positive (d_m = .19 in Western cultures and d_m = .12 in Eastern cultures), indicating that self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective were lower than self-ratings from one's own perspective. That is, both Western and Eastern employees reduced self-ratings of positive work behavior when they were asked to rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective. However, the extent to which the altered self-ratings became more similar to actual supervisor ratings varied by culture. Specifically, in Western cultures, the mean difference between self- and actual supervisor ratings was smaller when employees were asked to adopt a supervisor's

perspective than using their own perspective. This result suggests that having Western employees take their supervisor's perspective closer approximates actual supervisor ratings than traditional self-ratings. On the other hand, in Eastern cultures, the mean difference between self- and supervisor ratings was even larger when employees were asked to adopt a supervisor's perspective than their own perspective, suggesting that having Eastern employees adopt their supervisor's perspective is not a better way to approximate actual supervisor ratings.

Similarly, how the use of supervisor-perspective ratings influences the self-supervisor rating correlations showed inconsistent patterns across cultures. In Western cultures, the correlations between self- and supervisor ratings were higher when employees were asked to rate themselves from a supervisor's perspective than from their own perspective. This result suggested that having Western employees rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective enhances the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings. On the other hand, in Eastern cultures, the correlations between self- supervisor ratings were not significantly higher when employees adopted their supervisor's perspective than using their own perspective. This result suggested that having employees adopt their supervisor's perspective is not a viable way to enhance the correlation between self- and supervisor ratings in Eastern cultures.

14. GENERAL DISCUSSION

The purpose of this dissertation was to examine whether adopting a supervisor's perspective changes self-ratings of work performance (mean shift), which in turn influences two indices of congruence between self- and supervisor ratings. The direction and magnitude of these effects were tested for multiple work performance dimensions and across Eastern and Western samples. The results from two primary studies and a meta-analysis provided several important lines of evidence. First, the changes in self-ratings varied as a function of work performance dimensions. For positive behaviors, the results from Study 1 and 2 indicated that adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower ratings of task performance and OCB in both Western and Eastern cultures. In addition, employees adopting their supervisor's perspective tended to lower self-ratings of task performance more substantially than self-ratings of one type of extra-role behaviors (OCB-O in the U.S. and OCB-CH in Korea). This is in line with the notion that employees are more likely to get feedback and comments from their supervisors on required behavior (task performance) than extra-role behaviors, which encourages employees to reduce their egocentric view on in-role behaviors when adopting their supervisor's perspective.

Regarding negative behaviors, the results from Study 1 indicated that adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower ratings of CWBs in the U.S. In other words, U.S. employees underrated CWBs when they were asked to rate their CWB engagement from their supervisor's perspective, suggesting that employees assume that

supervisors are less aware of their CWBs. In addition, the mean change in CWB-O ratings between DP and SP was larger than the mean change in CWB-I ratings. This suggests that employees believe that organizational target CWBs are less likely to be witnessed by a supervisor than interpersonal target CWBs. However, unexpected findings occurred in Eastern cultures. Specifically, the results from Study 2 revealed that adopting a supervisor's perspective did not result in the mean shift in CWB-I in Korea. However, adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in higher CWB-O ratings compared to using their own perspective. Also, the mean shift in CWB-O ratings between direct- and supervisor-perspective was larger than the mean shift in CWB-I ratings. Thus, in Study 2, Korean employees reported more CWB-O engagement (but not CWB-I engagement) when asked to rate their CWBs from their supervisor's perspective compared to their own perspective. That is, unlike the U.S sample from Study 1, Korean employees may believe that their supervisors can perceive more organizational target CWBs than they actually engage in.

Second, the results from Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3 indicated that how self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective influence rater congruence varied across cultures. In Western cultures, the findings were in line with the expectations (Study 1 and Study 3). Specifically, the rater agreement on positive behaviors between self- and supervisor ratings (both mean differences and correlations) was enhanced when employees were asked to explicitly rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective. These findings indicate that instructing employees to adopt a supervisor's perspective seems to improve rater agreement in Western cultures to some extent. On the other

hand, unexpected findings were obtained in Eastern cultures. Specifically, the results of Study 2 and 3 revealed that the rater agreement on positive behaviors was not enhanced when employees were asked to rate themselves from their supervisor's perspective. Thus, these findings indicate that adopting a supervisor's perspective may not be an effective way to reduce rater discrepancies on employees' positive behavior in Eastern cultures.

14.1 Post-hoc Explanations about the Supervisor-Perspective Effects in Eastern Cultures

The results of the two primary studies and the meta-analysis suggested that national culture plays an important role in determining not only how adopting a supervisor's perspective changes self-ratings of work performance, but also whether the altered perspective improves congruence between self- and supervisor ratings. As noted above, the posited supervisor-perspective effects were not obtained in Eastern cultures. Accordingly, the following discussion provides some post-hoc explanations for why supervisor-perspective effects were not replicable in Eastern cultures. Specifically, I present different trends in self-ratings across cultures and then provide potential explanations as to how Eastern employees alter their self-ratings when they are asked to evaluate themselves from their supervisor's perspective and its subsequent influence on rater congruence in Eastern cultures.

Different Trends in Self-ratings across Cultures. The results of Study 1 and Study 3 revealed that the DP ratings were higher than the actual supervisor ratings in Western cultures, which is consistent with empirical evidence that self-raters rate

themselves higher than other-raters do (Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). As mentioned earlier, this phenomenon is known as a leniency bias in self-ratings and is often attributed to the tendency of employees to be motivated to present themselves positively. However, lenient self-ratings are not always a concern in Eastern cultures. Specifically, Eastern Asians tend to rate themselves lower than others do, which is referred to as a "modesty bias in self-ratings" (Barron & Sackett, 2008; Farh, et al., 1991). This modesty bias in self-ratings was also observed in Study 2 and Study 3, as the means of the DP ratings of positive behaviors were lower than the mean of the actual supervisor ratings.

There are several reasons why Eastern Asians tend to rate themselves lower than others do. The first reason pertains to a prevalent modesty norm rooted in Confucian philosophy. Confucianism emerged in China around 500 B. C. through the teachings of the philosopher Confucius. Over the 2500-year, this philosophical value has been central to provide a set of social, moral, and ethical principles in East Asian societies (e.g., China, Korea, and Japan) (Yan & Sorenson, 2006). Confucian philosophy specifically advocates for being modest as a critical virtue, because the appreciation and display of humble behaviors is believed to be a precedence for sustaining harmonious interpersonal relationships in society (Bond, Leung, & Wan, 1982). The idea of highlighting modesty in Confucian cultures is well illustrated with the quote "He who speaks without modesty will find it difficult to make his words good" (Confucius). Accordingly, the prevalent social norm of being modest stemming

from Confucian philosophy influences the tendency of individuals to evaluate themselves humbly.

Another reason for the observed modesty bias in self-ratings has to do with cultural values: individualism vs. collectivism. Individualism/collectivism refers to the extent to which the identity of individuals in a society is based on personal qualities or group memberships like the family or organization (Hofstede, 2001). People in collectivistic cultures (e.g., China and Korea) are expected to have high degrees of social interaction and seek harmonious relationships within the group due to the emphasis of interdependence, which is in contrast to individualistic cultures (e.g., U.S. and Canada) where the norms of independence, autonomy, and personal fulfillment are valued. Unlike individualistic cultures that are encouraged to emphasize individual uniqueness, collectivistic cultures deemphasize individual achievement and sometimes require suppression of individual interests for the sake of interpersonal harmony and group cohesion (Hofstede, 2001). Consequently, discouragement from boasting about individual accomplishments in collectivistic cultures is reflected in the context of performance appraisal. The notion of the modest self-ratings has been corroborated by empirical evidence in which Japanese and Korean managers were found to rate themselves lower than others (Barron & Sackett, 2008). Moreover, meta-analytic research indicates that on average, self-ratings are lower for collectivistic societies (Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). In sum, self-ratings tend to reflect modesty, which results in rater discrepancies in Eastern culture.

Mean Shift and Its Influence on Rater Congruence in Eastern Cultures.

Advocating for adopting a supervisor's perspective in ratings is predicated on the idea of potentially reducing biases in self-ratings, thus resulting in reduced rater discrepancies. If a modesty bias in self-ratings is prevalent in Eastern cultures, it is reasonable to believe that adopting a supervisor's perspective can help Eastern self-raters modify such modesty bias in a certain manner. Specifically, one might argue that adopting a supervisor's perspective would provide East Asians with an opportunity to rate themselves without hindrance or restraint of being modest, which would in turn lead to high levels of correspondence between self- and supervisor ratings. That is, SP ratings are likely to be more similar to actual supervisor ratings than DP ratings in Eastern cultures as well. Nevertheless, the results of Study 2 and 3 showed the unexpected findings and issues. Specifically, the first issue is the SP ratings were *still* lower than the DP ratings in Eastern cultures. Another issue is that the mean differences between self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective and actual supervisor ratings were even larger and the correlations between self- and supervisor ratings were not improved when employees adopted their supervisor's perspective. In other word, the use of supervisor-perspective ratings did not help Eastern self-raters reduce the modesty tendency in self-ratings nor help to improve the rater agreement in Eastern cultures.

Despite these counterintuitive findings, there might be other psychological mechanisms that may account for the unexpected results of Study 2 and Study 3. The findings that the SP ratings were still lower than DP ratings might have to do with a

primed modesty effect as a result of the referent shift in the instructions and/or measures. Specifically, when Eastern employees are instructed to provide self-ratings by using the third person's response format (e.g., "My supervisor thinks"), they are likely to think about not only the view of their supervisor (i.e., how behavior is being viewed by my supervisor), but also the social norm of modesty (how behavior *should* be viewed by my supervisor). For people with high collectivism and interdependent self, the function of the perspective of the third person is essential and required in order to make sure that they conform to social norms (Cohen, Hoshino-Browne, & Leung, 2007). This is because appropriate norms and behaviors in collectivistic cultures are defined in relation to others. Thus, raters who are explicitly asked to take the third person's perspective may be further reminded of social norms. In other words, adopting a supervisor's perspective will likely then lead raters to endorse the idea of being modest that is considered acceptable and desirable in the society. Therefore, East Asians are likely to try to be even more modest and humble and less boastful in self-rating as a result of the SP priming (Kurman & Sriram, 2002), which would, in turn, lead to lower mean ratings. In sum, it is possible that the perspective-taking approach primes the modesty norm for Eastern culture samples such that East Asians would exhibit even more modest self-ratings in the end.

In addition, the findings that the self- and supervisor rating differences were larger and the correlations were not improved after taking on their supervisor's perspective may also have to do with the limited amount of information that Eastern employees can utilize for the supervisor-perspective ratings. This is particularly tied to

the evidence that performance appraisal practices and feedback are less prevent in Eastern cultures (Chiang & Birtch, 2010). Because of infrequent performance appraisals, Eastern employees are less likely have a clear understanding of how their work behaviors are viewed by their supervisor. In addition, the nature of performance appraisal practices in Eastern cultures likely come into play. Whereas Western cultures tend to value explicit performance management practices where written and formalized guidelines are frequently used, performance management and practices in Eastern cultures are characterized by a highly implicit system where guidelines and rules are less known by all participants (Festing, Knappert, Dowling, & Engle, 2012). Therefore, Eastern employees are less likely to be informed of how their work behaviors are viewed by their supervisors.

All in all, both infrequent performance appraisal implementation and implicit performance management practices may offer few opportunities to obtain evaluative information about their behavior from their supervisor in Eastern cultures. Consequently, it is difficult for Eastern employees to know how to adjust ratings appropriately in order to make the self-ratings similar to supervisor ratings, even when they are explicitly asked to do so. Furthermore, it is possible that given the lack of information about their behavior from their supervisor, Eastern employees likely exhibit even further modesty in self-ratings as a result of the primed modesty norm. This may account for the findings in Study 2 and Study 3 that the mean differences between self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective and actual supervisor ratings were

even larger and the correlations were not as improved as they were for Western cultures.

Psychological Mechanisms of Perspective-taking at the Individual Level. As noted earlier, there are at least two theoretical models about perspective-taking in the literature: dispositional self-theory model and the feedback model. According to the dispositional self-theory model, when individuals are asked to take the perspective of others when rating their own behavior, they assume that their own personality and dispositions will be immediately apparent to others. Therefore, individual's perception about how others see them is based on individual's general views of themselves (Kenny & DePaulo, 1993). However, many researchers have argued that the dispositional self-view model may not be always applicable in natural contexts in which feedback and contextual cues are salient (Albright et al., 1999; Albright et al., 2001; Carson et al., 2011). According to the feedback model, individuals tend to pay more attention to situational cues and feedback from others, relying less on their own dispositions in everyday social life. Thus, in typical social situations, individual's perception about how others see them is influenced by the amount of information that people have access to from contexts and others. In conclusion, both individuals' dispositional characteristics and information available about their behavior from other people (e.g., feedback) come into play when it comes to adopting someone else's perspective.

From these basic psychological views, two future research questions regarding the observed cultural differences can arise. The first question is "What would happen to

supervisor-perspective ratings when performance feedback is available in Eastern cultures?" As mentioned earlier, research has documented that performance appraisal is less frequent and implicit feedback is used in Eastern cultures. Accordingly, Eastern employees may consider their own dispositional attributions and characteristics (e.g., being humble) as a source of perspective-taking instead of using available information about their behavior. However, according to the feedback model, it is speculated that when Eastern employees have enough information and feedback about their own behavior, Eastern employees are less likely to rely on dispositional characteristics and more likely to rely on feedback. Thus, it is possible that supervisor-perspective ratings would be more similar to actual supervisor-ratings when Eastern employees have access to relevant information that can be used for the supervisor-perspective ratings.

Another research question is "What would happen to supervisor-perspective ratings when performance feedback is not available in Western cultures?" The findings of Study 3 showed that Western employees were able to better estimate how their positive behaviors are viewed by their supervisor, which in turn led to improved rater agreement between self and supervisor-ratings. According to the feedback model, this is in part due to the fact that there are frequent performance appraisal sessions and explicit performance management practices in Western cultures. Therefore, there is high likelihood that Western employees rely more on the feedback and information than their own dispositional characteristics when they are asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective. However, it is possible that when Western employees have less access to information about their behaviors, adopting a supervisor's perspective

will likely be based on their dispositional attributions (e.g., being assertive and confident), which may in turn no longer produce decreased self-ratings. Thus, it is feasible to speculate that supervisor-perspective ratings would be less similar to actual supervisor-ratings when Western employees lack information and feedback about their own behavior.

14.2 Theoretical Implications

The results of the two primary studies and a meta-analysis advance an understanding of the SP rating and its effect on rater congruence by focusing on broad work performance dimensions and national cultures. Although it is theorized that self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective helps to improve rater agreement (Schoorman & Mayer, 2007), a close examination of the literature indicates the large variability of the effect size, which raises a question as to whether using a SP rating is an indeed viable way to increase correspondence between ratings. The findings of this dissertation suggest that the extent to which using a SP rating influences congruence between self- and supervisor ratings is influenced by what is measured and national culture.

In addition, this dissertation extends previous knowledge on the notion of adopting a supervisor's perspective in the context of performance appraisal through the explication of both how self-ratings change as well as how rater congruence indices- *d* and *r* change respectively. An examination of changes in self-ratings was useful to understand why the rater congruence differed between Western and Eastern cultures. Specifically, the results clearly showed that due to different biases in self-ratings, how

employees changed their self-ratings differed between cultures, which determined whether asking employees to adopt their supervisor's perspective was effective in improving correspondence between ratings. In addition, this study provides a better understanding of the resulting congruence due to adopting a supervisor's perspective by examining how the use of supervisor-perspective ratings influences both mean differences and correlations respectively, which is aligned with the notion that mean differences and correlations are independent rater agreement indices (Warr & Bourne, 1999).

This study has implications for theory and adds to the growing body of literature regarding perspective-taking in human resource management (e.g., Connelly & Ones, 2010; Connelly & Hülsheger, 2012; Oh & Kim, 2014; Oh, Wang, & Mount, 2011). As noted above, the notion of perspective-taking has received extensive attention in several areas of psychology, but little attention has been paid in the context of organizations. In this regard, there have been calls to examine the effect of perspective-taking in workplace settings (Carlson et al., 2011; Hu et al., 2014a). The results of this dissertation suggest that consideration of raters' perspectives may offer a worthwhile avenue to increase the understanding of self-reported evaluations in organizations. In particular, the perspective effect dovetails nicely with previous meta-analyses of mean differences between self- and observer-ratings of OCB and CWB (Berry et al., 2012; Carpenter et al., 2014; Ng & Feldman, 2012), as all of these studies suggest there are real differences in ratings of these behaviors across rating perspectives. Consistent with the proposition that self-supervisor rating disagreement

should be conceptualized as meaningful variance (e.g., Borman, 1997; Hoffman, Lance, Bynum, Gentry, 2010; Hoffman & Woehr, 2009), the results suggest that rater discrepancies can be explained by different rater perspectives.

14.3 Practical Implications

There are several practical implications of this research. First, because taking the perspective of a supervisor changed self-rated performance, which in turn led to improved agreement on positive organizational behaviors, HR managers can utilize the perspective-taking approach as a useful tool to help employees understand expectations and requirements from their supervisor's view. For instance, the use of supervisor-perspective ratings can offer the way to improve self-awareness which can play a role in determining desirable organizational behavior and effective performance. Research has shown that those with a more accurate self-awareness tend to effectively use information about abilities and performance in order to change goals, standards, and behavior, which in turn leads to positive individual outcomes (Ashford, 1989; Atwater, Roush, & Fischthal, 1995; Church, 1997). In contrast, individuals who lack self-awareness likely overestimate their skills and abilities, make poor choices and are often unaware of what is needed for improvement (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; McCall & Lombardo, 1983). Thus, the use of supervisor-perspective ratings can direct employees to identify and focus on what should be changed and improved from their supervisor's view, which can increase accurate self-awareness in the workplace.

Taking on a supervisor's perspective could be extended into an intervention in which employees and supervisors come together to discuss rating discrepancies and

strive for a set of consensus ratings. Many organizations require employees to generate self-ratings as a part of their annual review; however, it is not clear how often employees and supervisors discuss or attempt to resolve discrepancies. By asking employees to rate themselves from both their own and supervisor's perspective, they could be encouraged to share why and how their own self-ratings are different from self-ratings from their supervisor's perspective. This could result in improvements in understanding about expectations, time allocation, and standards between an employee and a supervisor. Additionally, similar calibration efforts could be made with ratings from other sources (e.g., coworkers and customers).

From a research standpoint, this study demonstrated self-ratings from a supervisor's perspective are not a viable substitute for an actual supervisor rating of job performance. There has been an assertion that using self-ratings with an appropriate response format and referent shift (i.e., supervisor's perspective) is an alternative to obtaining supervisor-ratings in research. Relatedly, Schoorman and Mayer (2008) argued that "if organizational researchers wish to have self-reported appraisals serve as an easier and cheaper to collect surrogate for supervisor evaluations, they should simply ask each employee to report his or her supervisor's opinion of their performance" (p. 156). Based on this, researchers have used supervisor-perspective ratings as a substitute for actual supervisor ratings (e.g., Dwertmann & Boehm, 2016; Hennekam & Herrbach, 2013; Hoekstra 2011; Mills et al., 2014; Schat & Frone, 2011; Zacher, 2015). However, the findings of the three studies revealed some potential problems with this practice. If supervisor-perspective ratings were a viable substitute

for actual supervisor ratings, one would expect a very small mean difference and a very strong correlation between supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings. However, according to the meta-analytic estimate in this study, the changes in the mean differences (from .23 to .07) and correlations (from .18 to .24) were not substantial. Accordingly, it is advisable for researchers to stop using supervisor-perspective ratings as proxies for actual supervisor ratings in research.

Nonetheless, the supervisor-perspective ratings can be used to facilitate a research data quality check. For example, Bernerth et al. (2012) attempted to use supervisor-perspective ratings to make sure that participants did not respond to the survey for their supervisor personally due to their unique recruitment method. Specifically, as a part of the study procedure, participants were asked to give their direct supervisor a survey about the participants' job performance by themselves. Once their supervisor completed the survey, participants were responsible to collect the completed survey from their supervisor and mail directly to the authors. Accordingly, participants were required to provide a self-rating of their own performance from their supervisor's perspective (the supervisor-perspective rating). By comparing the correlation between the supervisor-perspective self-rating and actual supervisor rating from their study with the correlation from Schoorman and Mayer (2008), Bernerth et al. (2012) argued that their study procedures were appropriately followed. In sum, by examining correspondence between the supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings, researchers could use the perspective-taking approach as one way of ensuring that data are collected in an appropriate manner.

14.4 Limitations and Future Directions

A limitation of this study is there were insufficient data to fully test all hypotheses. Although the results of Study 1, 2, and 3 revealed that adopting a supervisor's perspective made a small difference in self-ratings of all work performance dimensions, there are still unexamined questions. For example, due to the absence of actual supervisor ratings in Study 1, it is difficult to determine how similar or different the supervisor-perspective ratings of all work performance dimensions would be to actual supervisor ratings in Western cultures. Similarly, in Study 3, because of the small number of primary studies for each construct, it was not possible to determine whether the supervisor-perspective effects within each culture vary at the construct level (task, OCB, and CWB) in the meta-analysis.

Specifically, it would be worthwhile to investigate how adopting a supervisor's perspective influences rater agreement between self- and supervisor ratings of CWBs, because such comparisons might reveal the best source for these ratings. Berry et al. (2012) argued that self-reports are a viable way to capture CWBs relative to other-reports due to the limited opportunity that other raters have to observe these behaviors. If future research demonstrates that both supervisor-perspective ratings and actual supervisor ratings of CWB are lower than direct-perspective CWB ratings, it will support the idea that self-reports are not an inferior method of assessing CWB. Based on the findings of Study 1 that the mean of self-rated CWB from a supervisor's perspective was lower than the mean of self-rated CWB from their own perspective, a

tentative conclusion is that self-raters report that they are engaging in more CWBs than their supervisors are aware of.

More importantly, future research should explicitly examine the mechanisms underlying the supervisor-perspective effects in the context of the workplace. The notion of how others perceive them, which is referred to as meta-perception in social psychology, has received considerable attention, resulting in a number of empirical studies and several relevant theoretical frameworks (e.g., dispositional self-view model and feedback model). However, the majority of extant studies that have examined the notion of meta-perception seems to be limited in terms of types of participants (e.g., undergraduate samples), construct assessed (e.g., mostly personality traits), and unnatural experimental settings (e.g., participants were asked to judge a newly acquainted individual's personality in lab). These unnatural experimental settings and restricted study characteristics have limited ecological validity (e.g., Ferguson, 2004; Mitchell, 2012). Thus, a theoretical framework that explains how an employee's behaviors are viewed by a supervisor in the context of organizations is needed.

In addition, it is important to directly examine the post-hoc explanations provided for the observed cultural differences in the various effect sizes examined in this research. As noted above, one important question that needs to be addressed in future research is whether the observed cultural differences are due to differences in the number of performance appraisals and feedback received and/or differences in performance appraisal practices across cultures. Thus, it would be valuable to investigate the extent to which employees alter their perspective ratings as a function of

the frequency of performance appraisal feedback and the characteristics of the performance management practice. To directly address this issue, future research could manipulate the amount of information provided and then examine the extent to which supervisor-perspective ratings are altered.

The superiority of SP ratings over DP self-ratings should be tested in multiple ways. First, an examination of the criterion-related validity of SP ratings would be worthwhile. If the SP rating results in a more valid self-report performance measure, one would expect the pattern of criterion-related validity for job performance predictors (e.g., cognitive ability or conscientiousness) to look more like what is expected when the criterion is actual supervisor ratings. Thus, from the standpoint of validation, it would be important to explore whether using SP vs. DP ratings differently impacts relationships with predictors of job performance.

Additionally, it is important to investigate the extent to which adopting a supervisor's perspective changes self-ratings in high-stakes settings in which there are important consequences or outcomes associated with the ratings. Research shows that there are higher levels of leniency in self-ratings when the ratings were gathered for an administrative purpose rather than a developmental or research purpose (Heidemeier & Moser, 2009). In the context of performance appraisal, ratings are often attached to important job outcomes (e.g., promotions, raises, and bonuses, etc.). Accordingly, it is possible that an employee is much more likely to be lenient in both perspective ratings if the self-ratings are tied to work outcomes, which may limit the differences between the SP and DP ratings. Thus, future research is needed to determine how much

employees actually alter their self-ratings when asked to adopt their supervisor's perspective in high-stakes settings.

Future research should explore additional potential moderators of the supervisor-perspective effect to better understand rater discrepancies. In terms of demographic variables, an examination of sex differences in supervisor-perspective ratings may be worthwhile. Past research suggests that males are stereotypically more boastful than females (Furnham, Hosoe, & Tang, 2002) such that it is possible that the extent to which self-ratings are altered would be smaller for males than for females. It is possible that years of work experience may also have an effect on the supervisor-perspective ratings. For example, senior employees may be able to better approximate actual supervisor ratings due to cumulative work experiences and interactions with their supervisors. Also, it is important to examine whether the supervisor-perspective effects are influenced by employees' individual differences such as narcissism and self-monitoring. For instance, it is posited that the tendency of narcissists to be highly self-focused and egocentric (Sedikides, Campbell, Reeder, Elliot, & Gregg, 2002) may prohibit them from taking someone else's perspective effectively, leading to fewer changes in self-ratings even when asked to do so. In addition, any situational factors affecting self-ratings and the congruence between self-other ratings can be potential moderators of the supervisor-perspective effect such as perceived fairness of performance appraisal process, leader-member exchange, power differences in an organization, and the relationship with the supervisor.

It is important to note that the observed congruence in this study might vary as a function of how the question regarding SP is asked. Generally, there are at least two questions that have been used in collecting a SP rating (see Table 2): perspective-taking vs. recall. A perspective-taking question asks employees to rate how they would be rated by a third person. Some sample items of the perspective-taking question include "How do you think your supervisor would rate your performance at work?" and "How would your supervisor rate your own performance?" On the other hand, a recall question asks participants to simply recall their previous performance evaluation (e.g., from their supervisors). A sample item is "Identify the rating you were given at the time of your last performance appraisal" (Lobene & Meade, 2013; Schoorman & Mayer, 2008). Whereas the perspective-taking question involves making inferences (Epley, & Caruso, 2009), the recall question is answered based on the respondent's memory and recollection of the supervisor's rating given in the past. Thus, due to the nature of two different questions, it is high likely that a particular question used influences rater congruence. For instance, Schoorman and Mayer (2008) reported quite different correlations between SP ratings and actual supervisor ratings in their study (r = .88 with the recall question in Study 1 and r = .24 with the perspective-taking question in Study 2). Thus, future research should examine the extent to which these two different questions influence the supervisor-perspective effect. More importantly, a well-established set of instructions for inducing the supervisor-perspective will be needed.

In addition, the notion of perspective ratings can be applied to many other behaviors and constructs in the literature, especially those with low validity associated with self-report measurement. For example, Oh and Kim (2014) investigated the extent to which the validity of personality measures change when supervisor-perspective personality items are used. By directing self-raters to explicitly take the perspective of their supervisor, they found higher validity of the supervisor-perspective personality items compared to corresponding general self-report personality items. Relatedly, a potential area that could benefit from using a perspective-rating is safety-related behavior. For example, several studies have shown that the predictive validity of self-reported traffic safety behavior is spurious (Wahlberg, 2010; Wahlberg & Klein, 2010) due to the concern of socially desirable responding in self-ratings. Alternatively, researchers can explicitly ask employees to evaluate their safety behavior from the perspective of another person (e.g., supervisor) and then compare self-ratings and perspective-ratings to determine which methods produce a higher criterion-related validity with actual safety outcomes (e.g., injuries). Other negative behaviors such as drug use and risky behavior may be better assessed this way, too.

Finally, given the improved correspondence between raters, perspective-ratings can be used broadly in various ways to help organizational members identify, recognize, and understand any discrepant values, attitudes, and behaviors in the workplace. For instance, in the area of leadership development, the use of the perspective-rating can be a useful tool to help leaders recognize how their leadership styles and behaviors are perceived by followers. Also, in the context of customer

service, the use of customer-perspective ratings may provide employees with a means to identify their strengths and limitations from the view of customers. Additionally, perspective-taking has been found to foster social cognition, diversity, and inclusion in diverse work groups (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang, 2005; King, Kaplan, & Zaccaro, 2008; Williams, Parker, & Turner, 2007). Therefore, perspective-taking may be a valuable approach to facilitating and promoting diverse and inclusive climates in organizations.

15. CONCLUSIONS

In summary, the purpose of this research was to examine whether adopting a supervisor's perspective changes self-ratings of work performance, which in turn influences congruence between self- and supervisor ratings. The direction and magnitude of these effects were tested for multiple work performance dimensions and across Eastern and Western samples. The results from two primary studies and a meta-analysis provided several empirical assessments. First, the changes in self-ratings varied as a function of work performance dimensions and national culture. Specifically, adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower ratings of positive work behaviors in both Western and Eastern cultures. However, for negative work behavior, adopting a supervisor's perspective resulted in lower ratings in Western cultures, but did not change self-ratings in Eastern cultures. Second, the use of supervisor-perspective ratings was a better way to improve congruence between self- and supervisor ratings for Western samples than traditional self-ratings. However, adopting a supervisor's perspective did not appear to be all that useful for Eastern samples. More importantly, given the relatively small improvements in congruence, supervisor-perspective ratings are not a viable substitute for actual supervisor-ratings. Additional research is needed to further clarify the underlying mechanisms and applied as well as research-related implications of using such supervisor-perspective ratings.

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APPENDIX A

SURVEY ITEMS IN STUDY 1

[Direct-Perspective Ratings]

How would *you rate yourself* on the following job duties? Please use the scales presented below to rate the degree to which ***you*** would agree with the following statements.

Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991; "Strongly disagree," to 7 "Strongly agree,")

1. Adequately complete assigned duties.
2. Fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.
3. Perform tasks that are expected of you.
4. Meet formal performance requirements of the job.
5. Engage in activities that will directly affect your performance evaluation.
6. Neglect aspects of the job you are obligated to perform (R).
7. Fail to perform essential duties (R).

How would *you rate yourself* on the following work behaviors? Please use the scales presented below to rate how often your supervisor believes you engage in the following work behavior.

OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. Help others who have been absent.
2. Willingly give your time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. Adjust your work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. Go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. Show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business and personal situations.
6. Give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
7. Assist others with their duties.
8. Share personal property with others to help their work.
9. Attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
10. Keep up with developments in the organization.
11. Defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
12. Show pride when representing the organization in public.
13. Offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
14. Express loyalty toward the organization.

15. Take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
16. Demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

How would *you rate yourself* on the following work behaviors? Please use the scales presented below to rate how often your supervisor believes you engage in the following work behavior.

CWB-I and CWB-O (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. Made fun of someone at work.
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.
4. Cursed at someone at work.
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work.
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work.
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work.
8. Taken property from work without permission.
9. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
10. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.
11. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
12. Come in late to work without permission.
13. Littered your work environment.
14. Neglected to follow your boss's instructions.
15. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
16. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
17. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
18. Put little effort into your work.
19. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

[Supervisor-Perspective Ratings]

How would *your supervisor rate you* on the following job duties? Even if you disagree with how your supervisor would rate you, please use the scales presented below to rate the degree to which ***your supervisor*** would agree with the following statements about *you.*

Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991; "Strongly disagree," to 7 "Strongly agree,")

1. My supervisor thinks that I adequately complete assigned duties.
2. My supervisor thinks that I fulfill responsibilities specified in job description.
3. My supervisor thinks that I perform tasks that are expected of me.
4. My supervisor thinks that I meet formal performance requirements of the job.
5. My supervisor thinks that I engage in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation.
6. My supervisor thinks that I neglect aspects of the job I am obligated to perform (R).
7. My supervisor thinks that I fail to perform essential duties (R).

How would *your supervisor rate you* on the following work behaviors? Please use the scales presented below to rate how often your supervisor believes you engage in the following work behavior.

OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. My supervisor thinks that I help others who have been absent.
2. My supervisor thinks that I willingly give my time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. My supervisor thinks that I adjust my work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. My supervisor thinks that I go out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. My supervisor thinks that I show genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business and personal situations.
6. My supervisor thinks that I give up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
7. My supervisor thinks that I assist others with their duties.
8. My supervisor thinks that I share personal property with others to help their work.
9. My supervisor thinks that I attend functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
10. My supervisor thinks that I keep up with developments in the organization.

11. My supervisor thinks that I defend the organization when other employees criticize it.
12. My supervisor thinks that I show pride when representing the organization in public.
13. My supervisor thinks that I offer ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
14. My supervisor thinks that I express loyalty toward the organization.
15. My supervisor thinks that I take action to protect the organization from potential problems.
16. My supervisor thinks that I demonstrate concern about the image of the organization.

How would *your supervisor rate you* on the following work behaviors? Please use the scales presented below to rate how often your supervisor believes you engage in the following work behavior.

CWB-I and CWB-O (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. My supervisor thinks that I made fun of someone at work.
2. My supervisor thinks that I said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. My supervisor thinks that I made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.
4. My supervisor thinks that I cursed at someone at work.
5. My supervisor thinks that I played a mean prank on someone at work.
6. My supervisor thinks that I acted rudely toward someone at work.
7. My supervisor thinks that I publicly embarrassed someone at work.
8. My supervisor thinks that I took property from work without permission.
9. My supervisor thinks that I spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
10. My supervisor thinks that I falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than I spent on business expenses.
11. My supervisor thinks that I took an additional or longer break than is acceptable at work.
12. My supervisor thinks that I came in late to work without permission.
13. My supervisor thinks that I littered my work environment.
14. My supervisor thinks that I neglected to follow my boss's instructions.
15. My supervisor thinks that I intentionally worked slower than I could have worked.
16. My supervisor thinks that I discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
17. My supervisor thinks that I used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
18. My supervisor thinks that I put little effort into my work.
19. My supervisor thinks that I dragged out work in order to get overtime.

[Supervisor Ratings]

How would you rate your employee's performance at work? Please use the scales presented below to rate your employee's performance at work.

Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991; "Strongly disagree," to 7 "Strongly agree,")

1. This employee adequately completes assigned duties.
2. This employee fulfills responsibilities specified in job description.
3. This employee performs tasks that are expected of him/her.
4. This employee meets formal performance requirements of the job.
5. This employee engages in activities that will directly affect his/her performance evaluation.
6. This employee neglects aspects of the job he or she is obligated to perform (R).
7. This employee fails to perform essential duties (R).

How would you rate your employee's performance at work? Please use the scales presented below to rate how often this employee engages in the following work behaviors.

OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. This employee helps others who have been absent.
2. This employee willingly gives his/her time to help others who have work-related problems.
3. This employee adjusts his/her work schedule to accommodate other employees' requests for time off.
4. This employee goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in the work group.
5. This employee shows genuine concern and courtesy toward coworkers, even under the most trying business and personal situations.
6. This employee gives up time to help others who have work or nonwork problems.
7. This employee assists others with their duties.
8. This employee shares personal property with others to help their work.
9. This employee attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image.
10. This employee keeps up with developments in the organization.
11. This employee defends the organization when other employees criticize it.
12. This employee shows pride when representing the organization in public.
13. This employee offers ideas to improve the functioning of the organization.
14. This employee expresses loyalty toward the organization.
15. This employee takes action to protect the organization from potential problems.

16. This employee demonstrates concern about the image of the organization.

How would you rate your employee's performance at work? Please use the scales presented below to rate how often this employee engages in the following work behaviors.

CWB-I and CWB-O (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. Made fun of someone at work.
2. Said something hurtful to someone at work.
3. Made an ethnic, religious, or racial remark at work.
4. Cursed at someone at work.
5. Played a mean prank on someone at work.
6. Acted rudely toward someone at work.
7. Publicly embarrassed someone at work.
8. Taken property from work without permission.
9. Spent too much time fantasizing or daydreaming instead of working.
10. Falsified a receipt to get reimbursed for more money than you spent on business expenses.
11. Taken an additional or longer break than is acceptable at your workplace.
12. Come in late to work without permission.
13. Littered your work environment.
14. Neglected to follow your boss’s instructions.
15. Intentionally worked slower than you could have worked.
16. Discussed confidential company information with an unauthorized person.
17. Used an illegal drug or consumed alcohol on the job.
18. Put little effort into your work.
19. Dragged out work in order to get overtime.

APPENDIX B

SURVEY ITEMS IN STUDY 2

[Direct-Perspective Ratings]

아래 진술문은 자신의 관점에서 본 '업무 수행'을 나타냅니다. 각 진술문을 읽고 본 설명의 우측에 표시 된 척도에 해당하는 번호를 응답 칸에 기입하여 주시기 바랍니다

Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991; "Strongly disagree," to 7 "Strongly agree,")

1. 나는 할당된 업무를 적절하게 완수한다.
2. 나는 직무 기술서에 제시되어 있는 책임을 이행한다.
3. 나에게 요구되는 과제를 수행한다
4. 나는 직무에 필요한 공식적인 요구사항을 충족한다.
5. 나는 직무 수행에서 요구되는 사항들을 등한시한다.
6. 나는 핵심적인 의무 사항을 수행하지 못한다.

아래 진술문은 자신의 관점에서 본 '업무 수행'을 나타냅니다. 각 진술문을 읽고 본 설명의 우측에 표시 된 척도에 해당하는 번호를 응답 칸에 기입하여 주시기 바랍니다

OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. 결근한 사람을 돕는다.
2. 업무와 관련된 문제를 지닌 사람들을 돕기 위해 기꺼이 시간을 양보한다.
3. 다른 직원들의 휴가/연차를 고려하여 업무 스케줄을 조정한다.
4. 나는 새로운 직원들이 그룹에서 환영받는다고 느낄 수 있도록 일부러 애를 쓴다.

5. 나는 비즈니스나 개인적인 상황에서도 동료들을 향해 진심 어린 걱정과 정중함을 보인다
6. 업무 혹은 업무와 관련없는 문제를 가진 다른 사람들을 돕기 위해 시간을 포기한다
7. 나는 다른 사람들의 의무를 돕는다.
8. 업무에 도움이 되기 위해, 개인 소유의 물건들을 다른 사람들과 공유한다.
9. 반드시 요구되지는 않지만 조직 이미지에 도움이 되는 행사에 참여한다.
10. 조직의 발전에 꾸준히 발마추려 한다.
11. 다른 조직원들이 조직에 대해 비난할 때, 이를 방어한다
12. 여러 사람들 앞에서 나의 조직을 대표할 때 자부심을 느낀다.
13. 조직의 기능을 향상시키기 위한 아이디어를 제공한다
14. 조직에 대한 충성심을 표현한다.
15. 잠재적인 문제로부터 조직(회사)을 보호하기 위해 조취를 취한다.
16. 내가 속한 조직(회사) 이미지에 대한 걱정/우려를 나타낸다.

OCB-CH (Van Dyne & LePine,1998; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. 나의 상사에게 업무에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 대한 사항을 건의한다.
2. 부서의 다른 사람들에게 업무에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 관여하도록 격려하도록 하고, 나의 목소리를 낸다.
3. 업무 이슈와 관련해서 다른 사람들과 의견이 다르더라도, 내 의견을 부서 내의 다른 사람들에게 전달한다.
4. 내 의견이 유용하게 사용될 수 있는 업무상의 이슈를 지속적으로 파악한다.
5. 부서 내에서 삶의 질에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 대해 발언한다.
6. 나의 상사에게 직장 내에서 절차상의 변화나 새로운 프로젝트에 대한 아이디어를 거리낌 없이 말한다.

아래 진술문은 자신의 관점에서 본 '업무 수행'을 나타냅니다. 각 진술문을 읽고 본 설명의 우측에 표시 된 척도에 해당하는 번호를 응답 칸에 기입하여 주시기 바랍니다

CWB-I and CWB-O (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. 직장에서 누군가를 놀린다.
2. 직장에서 누군가에게 상처 주는 말을 한다.
3. 직장에서 종교 혹은 인종 관련된 발언을 한다.
4. 직장에서 누군가에게 악담을 퍼붓는다.
5. 직장에서 누군가에서 못된 장난을 친다.
6. 직장에서 누군가에게 무례하게 행동한다.
7. 직장에서 공공연히 누군가를 당황시킨다.
8. 허락 없이 직장의 물건을 슬쩍 훔친다.
9. 업무 보다는 몽상이나 잡생각을 하는 데 많은 시간을 보낸다.
10. 내가 사용한 지출 경비보다 더 많은 돈을 받기 위해 영수증을 위조한다.
11. 직장에서 허용된 것보다 더욱 오랜 시간 휴식을 갖는다.
12. 허락 없이 직장에 늦게 온다.
13. 업무 환경을 어지럽힌다.
14. 상사의 지시사항을 등한시 한다.
15. 끝낼 수 있는 시간보다 고의적으로 업무를 천천히 한다.
16. 업무와 관련 없는 사람과 회사의 기밀 사항에 대해 이야기 한다.
17. 업무 중에 불법 약물을 복용하거나 음주를 한다.
18. 초과 근무 수당을 받기 위해 업무를 지연시킨다.

[Supervisor-Perspective Ratings]

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Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991; "Strongly disagree," to 7 "Strongly agree,")

1. 나의 상사는 내가 할당된 업무를 적절하게 완수한다고 생각한다.
2. 나의 상사는 직무 기술서에 제시되어 있는 책임을 이행한다고 생각한다.
3. 나의 상사는 내가 요구되는 과제를 수행한다고 생각한다.
4. 나의 상사는 내가 직무에 필요한 공식적인 요구사항을 충족한다고 생각한다.
5. 나의 상사는 내가 직무 수행에서 요구되는 사항들을 등한시한다고 생각한다.
6. 나의 상사는 내가 핵심적인 의무 사항을 수행하지 못한다고 생각한다.

아래 진술문은 상사의 관점에서 본 '조직 수행'을 나타냅니다. 각 진술문을 읽고 본 설명의 우측에 표시 된 척도에 해당하는 번호를 응답 칸에 기입하여 주시기 바랍니다

OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002; 1 "never"; 2 "once a year"; 3 "twice a year"; 4" several times a year"; 5 "monthly"; 6 "weekly"; 7 "daily")

1. 나의 상사는 내가 결근한 사람을 돕는다고 생각한다.
2. 나의 상사는 내가 업무와 관련된 문제를 지닌 사람들을 돕기 위해 기꺼이 시간을 양보한다고 생각한다.

3. 나의 상사는 내가 다른 직원들의 휴가/연차를 고려하여 업무 스케줄을 조정한다고 생각한다.
4. 나의 상사는 내가 새로운 직원들이 그룹에서 환영받는다고 느낄 수 있도록 일부러 애를 쓴다고 생각한다.
5. 나의 상사는 내가 비즈니스나 개인적인 상황에서도 동료들을 향해 진심 어린 걱정과 정중함을 보인다고 생각한다.
6. 나의 상사는 내가 업무 혹은 업무와 관련없는 문제를 가진 다른 사람들을 돕기 위해 시간을 포기한다고 생각한다.
7. 나의 상사는 내가 다른 사람들의 의무를 돕는다고 생각한다.
8. 나의 상사는 내가 업무에 도움이 되기 위해, 개인 소유의 물건들을 다른 사람들과 공유한다고 생각한다.
9. 나의 상사는 내가 반드시 요구되지는 않지만 조직 이미지에 도움이 되는 행사에 참여한다고 생각한다.
10. 나의 상사는 내가 조직의 발전에 꾸준히 발마추려 한다고 생각한다.
11. 나의 상사는 내가 다른 조직원들이 조직에 대해 비난할 때, 이를 방어한다고 생각한다.
12. 나의 상사는 내가 여러 사람들 앞에서 나의 조직을 대표할 때 자부심을 느낀다고 생각한다.
13. 나의 상사는 내가 조직의 기능을 향상시키기 위한 아이디어를 제공한다고 생각한다.
14. 나의 상사는 내가 조직에 대한 충성심을 표현한다고 생각한다.
15. 나의 상사는 내가 잠재적인 문제로부터 조직(회사)을 보호하기 위해 조취를 취한다고 생각한다.
16. 나의 상사는 내가 속한 조직(회사) 이미지에 대한 걱정/우려를 나타낸다고 생각한다.

OCB-CH (Van Dyne & LePine,1998; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. 나의 상사는 내가 상사에게 업무에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 대한 사항을 건의한다고 생각한다.
2. 나의 상사는 내가 부서의 다른 사람들에게 업무에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 관여하도록 격려하도록 하고, 나의 목소리를 낸다고 생각한다.
3. 나의 상사는 내가 업무 이슈와 관련해서 다른 사람들과 의견이 다르더라도, 내 의견을 부서 내의 다른 사람들에게 전달한다고 생각한다.
4. 나의 상사는 내가 내 의견이 유용하게 사용될 수 있는 업무상의 이슈를 지속적으로 파악한다고 생각한다.
5. 나의 상사는 내가 부서 내에서 삶의 질에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 대해 발언한다고 생각한다.
6. 나의 상사는 내가 나의 상사에게 직장 내에서 절차상의 변화나 새로운 프로젝트에 대한 아이디어를 거리낌 없이 말한다고 생각한다.

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CWB-I and CWB-O (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 누군가를 놀린다고 생각한다.
2. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 누군가에게 상처 주는 말을 한다고 생각한다.
3. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 종교 혹은 인종 관련된 발언을 한다고 생각한다.
4. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 누군가에게 악담을 퍼붓는다고 생각한다.
5. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 누군가에서 못된 장난을 친다고 생각한다.

6. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 누군가에게 무례하게 행동한다고 생각한다.
7. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 공공연히 누군가를 당황시킨다고 생각한다.
8. 나의 상사는 내가 허락 없이 직장의 물건을 슬쩍 훔친다고 생각한다.
9. 나의 상사는 내가 업무 보다는 몽상이나 잡생각을 하는 데 많은 시간을 보낸다. 고 생각한다.
10. 나의 상사는 내가 내가 사용한 지출 경비보다 더 많은 돈을 받기 위해 영수증을 위조한다고 생각한다.
11. 나의 상사는 내가 직장에서 허용된 것보다 더욱 오랜 시간 휴식을 갖는다고 생각한다.
12. 나의 상사는 내가 허락 없이 직장에 늦게 온다고 생각한다.
13. 나의 상사는 내가 업무 환경을 어지럽힌다고 생각한다.
14. 나의 상사는 내가 상사의 지시사항을 등한시 한다고 생각한다.
15. 나의 상사는 내가 끝낼 수 있는 시간보다 고의적으로 업무를 천천히 한다고 생각한다.
16. 나의 상사는 내가 업무와 관련 없는 사람과 회사의 기밀 사항에 대해 이야기 한다고 생각한다.
17. 나의 상사는 내가 업무 중에 불법 약물을 복용하거나 음주를 한다고 생각한다.
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[Supervisor ratings]

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Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991; “Strongly disagree,” to 7 “Strongly agree,”)

1. 이 직원은 할당된 업무를 적절하게 완수한다.
2. 이 직원은 직무 기술서에 제시되어 있는 책임을 이행한다.
3. 이 직원은 본인에게 요구되는 과제를 수행한다
4. 이 직원은 직무에 필요한 공식적인 요구사항을 충족한다.
5. 이 직원은 직무 수행에서 요구되는 사항들을 등한시한다.
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OCB-I and OCB-O (Lee & Allen, 2002; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. 이 직원은 결근한 사람을 돕는다.
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6. 이 직원은 업무 혹은 업무와 관련없는 문제를 가진 다른 사람들을 돕기 위해 자신의 시간을 할애한다.
7. 이 직원은 다른 사람들의 의무를 돕는다.
8. 이 직원은 업무에 도움이 되기 위해, 개인 소유의 물건들을 다른 사람들과 공유한다.

9. 이 직원은 반드시 요구되지는 않더라도 조직 이미지에 도움이 되는 행사에 참여한다.
10. 이 직원은 조직의 발전에 꾸준히 발마추려 한다.
11. 이 직원은 다른 조직원들이 조직에 대해 비난할 때, 이를 방어한다
12. 이 직원은 여러 사람들 앞에서 조직을 대표할 때 자부심을 느낀다.
13. 이 직원은 조직의 기능을 향상시키기 위한 아이디어를 제공한다.
14. 이 직원은 조직에 대한 충성심을 표현한다.
15. 이 직원은 잠재적인 문제로부터 조직(회사)을 보호하기 위해 조취를 취한다.
16. 이 직원은 조직(회사) 이미지에 대한 걱정/우려를 나타낸다.

OCB-CH (Van Dyne & LePine,1998; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. 이 직원은 상사에게 업무에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 대한 사항을 건의한다.
2. 이 직원은 부서의 다른 사람들에게 업무에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 관여하도록 격려하도록 하고, 목소리를 낸다.
3. 이 직원은 업무 이슈와 관련해서 다른 사람들과 의견이 다르더라도, 자신의 의견을 부서 내의 다른 사람들에게 전달한다.
4. 이 직원은 자신의 의견이 유용하게 사용될 수 있는 업무상의 이슈를 지속적으로 파악한다.
5. 이 직원은 직장/부서 내에서 삶의 질에 영향을 미치는 이슈에 대해 발언한다.
6. 이 직원은 상사에게 절차상의 변화나 새로운 프로젝트에 대한 아이디어를 거리낌 없이 말한다.

아래 진술문은 부하 직원의 ‘조직 행동’과 관련된 진술문 입니다. 각 진술문을 읽고 부하 직원의 업무를 관리/감독하는 상사(평가자)로서, 부하 직원 (피평가자)의 업무 수행에 관해 아래 표시 된 척도에 해당하는 번호를 응답 칸에 기입하여 주시기 바랍니다.

CWB-I and CWB-O (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; 1 “never”; 2 “once a year”; 3 “twice a year”; 4” several times a year”; 5 “monthly”; 6 “weekly”; 7 “daily”)

1. 이 직원은 직장에서 누군가를 놀린다.
2. 이 직원은 직장에서 누군가에게 상처 주는 말을 한다.
3. 이 직원은 직장에서 종교 혹은 인종 관련된 발언을 한다.
4. 이 직원은 직장에서 누군가에게 악담을 퍼붓는다.
5. 이 직원은 직장에서 누군가에서 못된 장난을 친다.
6. 이 직원은 직장에서 누군가에게 무례하게 행동한다.
7. 이 직원은 직장에서 공공연히 누군가를 당황시킨다.
8. 이 직원은 허락 없이 직장의 물건을 슬쩍 훔친다.
9. 이 직원은 업무 보다는 몽상이나 잡생각을 하는 데 많은 시간을 보낸다.
10. 이 직원은 사용한 지출 경비보다 더 많은 돈을 받기 위해 영수증을 위조한다.
11. 이 직원은 직장에서 허용된 것보다 더욱 오랜 시간 휴식을 갖는다.
12. 이 직원은 허락 없이 직장에 늦게 온다.
13. 이 직원은 업무 환경을 어지럽힌다.
14. 이 직원은 상사의 지시사항을 등한시 한다.
15. 이 직원은 끝낼 수 있는 시간보다 고의적으로 업무를 천천히 한다.
16. 이 직원은 업무와 관련 없는 사람과 회사의 기밀 사항에 대해 이야기 한다.
17. 이 직원은 업무 중에 불법 약물을 복용하거나 음주를 한다.
18. 이 직원은 초과 근무 수당을 받기 위해 업무를 지연시킨다.

APPENDIX C

MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TWO PERSPECTIVE CONDITIONS IN STUDY 2

Performance Dimension	Direct-perspective followed by supervisor-perspective		Supervisor-perspective followed by direct-perspective		
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*d*
Direct-perspective TP	5.83	0.72	5.67	0.81	.21
Supervisor-perspective TP	5.37	0.87	5.20	0.81	.21
Direct-perspective OCB-I	4.70	0.99	4.63	1.06	.06
Supervisor-perspective OCB-I	4.20	1.26	4.27	1.03	-.06
Direct-perspective OCB-O	4.96	0.98	4.87	1.03	.00
Supervisor-perspective OCB-O	4.45	1.12	4.61	1.00	-.15
Direct-perspective OCB-CH	4.63	1.09	4.56	1.07	.06
Supervisor-perspective OCB-CH	4.44	1.21	4.27	1.13	.15
Direct-perspective CWB-I	1.62	0.67	1.50	0.83	.17
Supervisor-perspective CWB-I	1.53	0.66	1.58	0.80	-.06
Direct-perspective CWB-O	1.47	0.56	1.47	0.79	.00
Supervisor-perspective CWB-O	1.53	0.63	1.63	0.81	-.13

Note. *N*= 83-88. TP = task performance; OCB = organizational citizenship behavior; OCB-I = individual-directed OCB; OCB-O = organizational-directed OCB; OCB-CH = change-oriented OCB; CWB = counterproductive work behavior; CWB-I = interpersonal target CWB; CWB-O = organizational target CWB

APPENDIX D

CODING INFORMATION FOR SAMPLES INCLUDED IN META-ANALYSIS

Study	*N*	Var 1	Var 2	*d*	*r*	Country	Constructs
Bernerth et al. (2012)	113	SP Rating	S Rating	0.27	0.26	U.S.	Task
Goris (2014)	248	DP Rating	SP Rating	-0.06	0.35	Mexico	Task
Goris (2014)	248	DP Rating	S Rating	0.16	0.24	Mexico	Task
Goris (2014)	248	SP Rating	S Rating	0.22	0.12	Mexico	Task
Goris (2014)	248	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.01	0.48	Mexico	Task
Goris (2014)	248	DP Rating	S Rating	0.55	0.21	Mexico	Task
Goris (2014)	248	SP Rating	S Rating	0.54	0.17	Mexico	Task
Hu et al. (2014a)	240	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.16	0.84	China	OCB
Hu et al. (2014a)	240	DP Rating	S Rating	-0.04	0.14	China	OCB
Hu et al. (2014a)	240	DP Rating	SP Rating	-0.03	0.76	China	Task
Hu et al. (2014a)	240	DP Rating	S Rating	0.07	0.19	China	Task
Hu et al. (2014a)	240	SP Rating	S Rating	0.11	0.35	China	Task
Hu et al. (2014a)	240	SP Rating	S Rating	-0.21	0.08	China	OCB
Hu et al. (2014b)	140	SP Rating	S Rating	-0.32	0.01	China	OCB
Hu et al. (2014b)	140	SP Rating	S Rating	0.00	0.13	China	OCB
Hu et al. (2014b)	140	SP Rating	S Rating	-0.37	0.22	China	Task
Mills et al. (2014)	12	SP Rating	S Rating	NA	0.84	U.S.	Task
Park et al. (2013)	169	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.30	0.82	Korea	OCB
Park et al. (2013)	169	DP Rating	S Rating	0.25	0.30	Korea	OCB
Park et al. (2013)	169	SP Rating	S Rating	-0.12	0.27	Korea	OCB
Park et al. (2013)	169	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.07	0.81	Korea	Task
Park et al. (2013)	169	DP Rating	S Rating	-0.18	0.23	Korea	Task
Park et al. (2013)	169	SP Rating	S Rating	-0.24	0.20	Korea	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 1	228	DP Rating	S Rating	0.60	0.38	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 1	228	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.59	0.40	U.S.	Task

Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 1	228	SP Rating	S Rating	0.01	0.88	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.12	0.61	U.S.	OCB
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	DP Rating	S Rating	0.20	0.08	U.S.	OCB
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	SP Rating	S Rating	0.09	0.24	U.S.	OCB
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.06	0.60	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	DP Rating	S Rating	0.24	0.08	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	SP Rating	S Rating	0.19	0.14	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	DP Rating	SP Rating	0.11	0.75	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	DP Rating	S Rating	0.36	0.13	U.S.	Task
Schoorman & Mayer (2008): Study 2	345	SP Rating	S Rating	0.28	0.25	U.S.	Task
Smircich & Chesser (1981)	83	SP Rating	S Rating	NA	.04	U.S.	Task

APPENDIX E

META-ANALYSIS RESULTS: MEAN DIFFERENCES BETWEEN DIRECT PERSPECTIVE, SUPERVISOR-PERSPECTIVE, AND ACTUAL SUPERVISOR RATINGS OF WORK PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS WITH MEXICO DATA INCLUDED IN THE EASTERN CULTURE

	N	*k*	d_m	SD_d	SD_{res}	% var.
Eastern cultures						
DP ratings and SP ratings						
Task performance	905	4	.00	0.00	.00	100
OCB	409	2	.21	0.07	.00	100
Combined	1314	6	.06	0.00	.00	100
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	905	4	.17	0.22	.21	26.94
OCB	409	2	.07	0.14	.03	93.32
Combined	1314	6	.15	0.19	.19	33.82
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	1045	5	.11	0.27	.27	19.68
OCB	689	4	-.17	0.10	.00	100
Combined	1734	9	.00	0.24	.24	25.09

Note. k = number of effect sizes included in the meta-analysis; Positive d-values indicate the first comparison group (direct or supervisor-perspective) means were higher than the second comparison group (supervisor-perspective or supervisor ratings) means; d_m = mean sample size-weighted d-value; SD_d = sample size-weighted observed standard deviation of d-values; SD_{res} = standard deviation of d-values after subtracting out the expected variance due to sampling error; % var. = percentage of variance attributable to sampling error. Data from Mexico were included.

APPENDIX F

META-ANALYSIS RESULTS: CORRELATIONS BETWEEN DIRECT PERSPECTIVE, SUPERVISOR-PERSPECTIVE, AND ACTUAL SUPERVISOR RATINGS OF WORK PERFORMANCE DIMENSIONS WITH MEXICO DATA INCLUDED IN THE EASTERN CULTURE

	N	*k*	r_m	SD_r	SD_{res}	% var.
Eastern cultures						
DP ratings and SP ratings						
Task performance	905	4	.58	0.04	.18	5.47
OCB	409	2	.83	0.00	.00	100
Combined	1314	6	.66	0.03	.19	3.85
DP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	905	4	.22	0.00	.00	100
OCB	409	2	.20	0.00	.04	72.58
Combined	1314	6	.21	0.00	.00	100
SP ratings and Actual supervisor ratings						
Task performance	1045	5	.21	0.00	.05	64.24
OCB	689	4	.12	0.00	.05	66.27
Combined	1734	9	.18	0.00	.06	52.18

Note. k = number of effect sizes included in the meta-analysis; r_m = mean sample sized-weighted correlation; SD_r = mean sample size-weighted observed standard deviation of correlation; SD_{res} = standard deviation of d-values after subtracting out the expected variance due to sampling error; % var. = percentage of variance attributable to sampling error. Data from Mexico were included.